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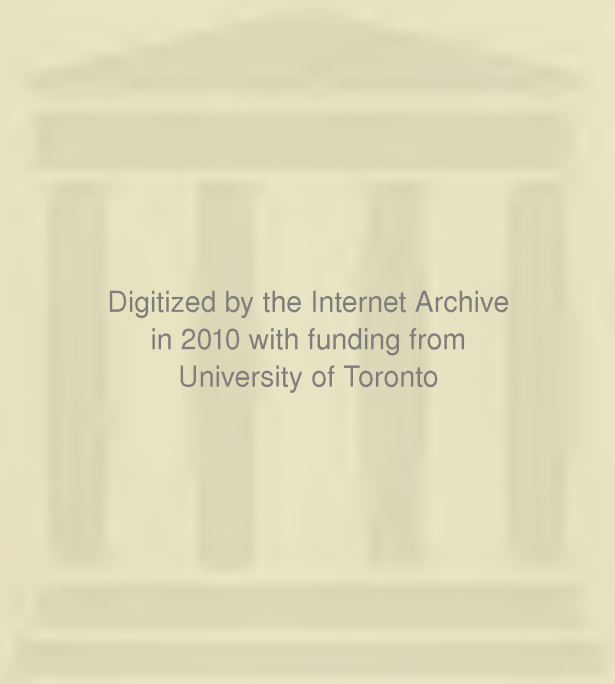
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THE  
HISTORIC GALLERY  
OF  
PORTRAITS AND PAINTINGS;  
AND  
*BIOGRAPHICAL REVIEW:*  
Containing  
A BRIEF ACCOUNT OF THE LIVES OF THE MOST  
CELEBRATED MEN,  
*IN EVERY AGE AND COUNTRY;*  
AND  
GRAPHIC IMITATIONS OF THE FINEST SPECIMENS  
OF  
THE ARTS;  
*ANCIENT AND MODERN.*  
WITH REMARKS, CRITICAL AND EXPLANATORY.

---

Tamen utile quid sit  
Prospiciunt aliquando.

*Juv. Sat. 6, lin. 319.*

Docti rationem artis intelligunt, indocti, voluptatem.

*Quint. lib. ix. 4.*

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VOL. VII.

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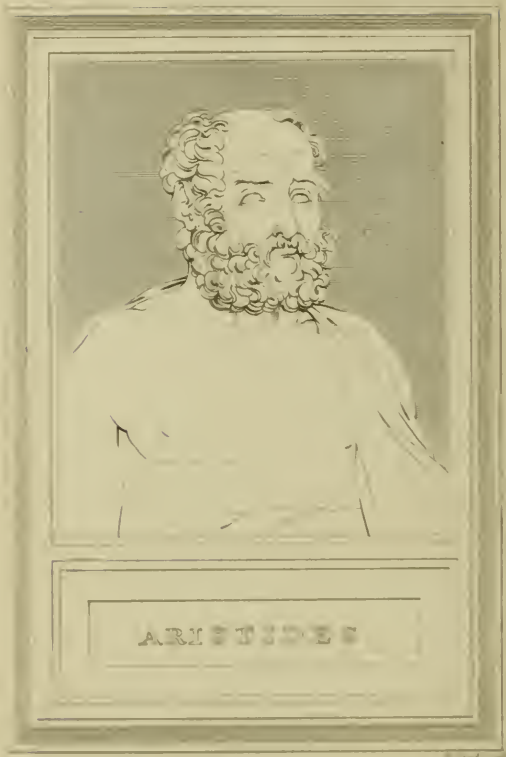
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## ARISTIDES.

IT requires only a single stroke of the pencil to depict Aristides: he was the justest and most virtuous of all the Athenians; he contributed less perhaps to their glory than Themistocles and Pericles, but infinitely more than either to their happiness. His example restrained for some time the depravity of morals, and truly merited that posterity, austere but equitable, should apply his name to those persons who never deviated from the path of probity and justice.

Aristides was born in the village of Alopeces, in Attica, and entered at an early age into the business of the republic. A man of extensive projects, whose genius was at once pliant and vigorous, full of cunning and finesse, and of unbounded ambition, assumed to himself the distinction of governing Athens: this character was Themistocles. The people, whose pretensions he favoured, countenanced all his designs, and elevated him by degrees to the sovereign power. Aristides, the admirer of the laws of Lycurgus, and inclining towards an aristocratical form of government, thwarted by a necessary consequence, the views of Themistocles. The republic frequently suffered by their divisions, for if one proposed any thing for the benefit of the state, the other immediately opposed it; not because it was prejudicial, but because the adoption of the project might augment the credit of the person who conceived it.

This manner of proceeding in Themistocles might

originate in a jealousy unworthy of a great character; in Aristides the love of his country alone led to the opposition he displayed to the designs of his rival, in order to keep him from the seat of power. Their rivalry, however, yielded to the danger which threatened Greece. Datis, commissioned by the king of Persia, had disembarked at Marathon a considerable army, which had already ravaged the country, and approached towards Athens. Themistocles and Aristides were among the ten generals who were ordered to oppose the barbarians.

These ten generals alternately took the command. The day arriving during which Aristides was to direct the army, he committed the management of it to Miltiades, of whose military talents and approved valour he was fully sensible, feeling himself happy to obey a general of such superior experience. Aristides was present at the celebrated battle of Marathon, and was entrusted after the victory with the care of the prisoners and of the booty, in which office he acquitted himself to the entire satisfaction of the army. The following year he was appointed Archon, and received the distinguished epithet of *the Just*. His integrity was a pretext for his destruction. Themistocles having represented that his virtues were only exhibited as a means of elevating him to the supreme power,—that conceiving mankind like himself, he had abolished the tribunals, and that he insensibly produced a monarchy divested of all pomp and attendants; the people of Athens, with consummate ingratitude, banished Aristides for ten years, by the medium of Ostracism. It was upon this occasion that a countryman, who was ignorant of his person, requested him to inscribe on his shell the

name of *Aristides*. The illustrious Athenian asked him if the person he was desirous of banishing had done him an injury. "Not in the least," answered the peasant, "but it mortifies me exceedingly to hear him continually called the *Just*." Aristides, without making any reply, took the shell, wrote his name upon it, and returned it to him.

Aristides was re-called after an exile of three years, and his zeal contributed to the salvation of Greece, then threatened by the arms of Xerxes. This extraordinary man disregarded all his former dissensions with Themistocles, who had caused his banishment, offered his service to the general, and conduced greatly to the victory of Salamis. Aristides was afterwards chosen to command the Athenian troops. He vanquished Mardonius, the lieutenant of the Persian Monarch, at the battle of Plataea. This great action is the only memorable exploit which history has preserved of him.

A little time after, we behold Aristides undertaking the defence of Themistocles, whom the people had condemned to exile, representing the services which this officer had rendered the state, extolling his valour, the extent of his genius, and the brilliancy of his conquests. In conducting himself with such magnanimity, Aristides shewed himself truly the man of all others in the republic whose desires seemed to concentrate in the welfare of the state. Appointed a third time General with Cimon, Aristides so ably conciliated the heads of the Greeks, dissatisfied with Pausanias, king of Lacedæmon, that he persuaded them to give to the Athenians the government of Greece. On this occasion he was made choice of to take cognizance of the wealth of all the Greek cities, and to regulate what each ought to pay annually

## ARISTIDES.

into the treasury established in the Isle of Delos. In this delicate, but honourable employ, he deported himself with such probity, prudence, and disinterestedness, that he satisfied every mind, and merited that the period of his administration should be denominated the golden age.

The year of the death of this great man is uncertain. According to the concurrent testimony of historians, he died in indigence; it is even pretended that the charges of his funeral were defrayed by the republic, and Plutarch assures us that his daughters were married at the expence of the Prytaneum.





NAPOLEON

## BUONAPARTE.

It is not to be expected in a publication of this kind, that we can enter at large into the history of this extraordinary man; we shall therefore content ourselves with giving a brief memoir of a personage, whose talents, exploits, and atrocities, have been the astonishment of the present age, and whose actions will be no less regarded by posterity with wonder and admiration.

Napoleon Buonaparte, who from a station in life comparatively obscure, has raised himself to the sovereignty of the empire of France, was a native of Corsica. When very young, he was sent to Paris, where he received his education at the *Ecole Militaire*. During his studies he was particularized for singularity of deportment, for great application and uncommon powers of mind. At the age of seventeen he obtained a commission as lieutenant of artillery; but on the breaking out of the revolution in France, he enlisted himself under its banners, and abandoned the cause of the ill-fated sovereign by whom he had been fostered and protected.

The revolutionary fanaticism of Buonaparte being noticed by the leaders of the republican party, he was promoted to the rank of captain, and employed on different expeditions. In 1793, Toulon being in the possession of the English, he was appointed to the command of a brigade by the director Barras; and the courage and ability he displayed during the siege and recapture of the city, confirmed the opinion which had been formed of his military genius. In 1795, having succeeded in repelling

the insurgent Parisian sections, and subjugated the people with inordinate cruelty,—through the influence of his protector, Barras, he was made second in command in the army of the interior, and in a short time afterwards commander in chief over the same army. In the winter of the same year he married the widow of Alexander Beauharnois, who brought him, it is said, as a portion, the command over the army in Italy, then opposed to the forces of Austria and Piedmont, which laid the foundation of his future glory.

The advantage he obtained over the allied armies during the campaigns of 1796 and 1797, established his reputation as a warrior and a commander; and from that period until the peace of Campo Formio, Buonaparte marched from success to success, from victory to victory, in which he was not a little aided by the want of vigour in the Austrian councils, and the incapacity of their generals in the field.

On the cessation of hostilities between France and Austria Buonaparte returned to France, from whence he was soon after sent to Egypt, at the head of a formidable armament. The object of this expedition was the conquest of the country, and the consequent hope of destroying the power of Great Britain in India. On the 19th of May, 1798, the fleet sailed from Toulon, and on the first of July, Buonaparte, with all his forces, appeared before Alexandria, which surrendered after a short resistance. His impious proclamations, upon taking possession of the city, are well known. Grand Cairo soon after followed, and town after town submitted to the French arms. On the 18th of February, 1797, Buonaparte left Cairo for El Arish, and proceeded to the attack of Jaffa, which was taken by assault. He then marched

against St. Jean d'Acre, where the fame of Buonaparte became eclipsed by the chivalrous bravery and prevailing genius of Sir Sydney Smyth. The relation of this memorable siege demands too great a length to find a place here. Suffice it to say that numerous acts of temerity, despair, treachery, and cruelty, exhibited by Buonaparte and his officers, were encountered and defeated by the intrepidity of the Dgezzar Pacha, and the heroism and generosity of the British commander. Foiled in this attack, the military exploits of Buonaparte in Egypt may be said to have terminated, for he soon after formed the resolution of quitting the country. Leaving the army under the command of Kleber, and repairing on shipboard, with accustomed good fortune he was landed near Frejus, in Provence.

Notwithstanding this disgraceful proceeding, a prospect of the most brilliant description opened to his view. Upon his return to France, he found the torch of civil war was again lighted in many departments. The people hailed his arrival in Paris as a great national deliverance. A change in the form of government soon after followed; and having united all the authorities, both civil and military, in his own person, Buonaparte became chief consul of the republic of France.

His first act, upon his elevation to his new dignity, was to secure his power by professing a desire for peace. With this view he wrote letters to the Emperors of Germany and Russia, and to the King of England which, as deserting the regular forms of diplomatic proceeding, totally failed of their object. War was now carried on by the powers at enmity with France with redoubled vigour; and Buonaparte resolved to effect that in the field which he could not accomplish in the cabinet. He

immediately put himself at the head of his troops, and crossing the Alps with unexampled celerity, proceeded to the attack of the Austrians on the plains of Marengo, over whom he obtained a decisive victory, and compelled Melas, the Austrian general, to sign a dishonourable armistice, which was succeeded by a peace. It is, however, to be reflected upon with peculiar pride, that during his most signal success, Great Britain maintained the sovereignty of the ocean; and the victor of the Nile, gathering new laurels before Copenhagen, again blighted the hopes of Buonaparte, and dissolved in one day a confederacy which French emissaries had been months in preparing and concluding. Conscious at length of our naval superiority, and apprized of the surrender of Alexandria to Lord Hutchinson, the French ruler was induced to turn his thoughts to peace, and the preliminaries of which were signed on the first of October, 1801.

This peace (which was never effected in the spirit of amity) was of short duration. In the year 1803, war was recommenced against France by England and Austria, in which Russia soon after took a part. But the renewal of hostilities, while it added to the aggrandisement of the French nation, tended to confirm Buonaparte (whom we are now to consider as emperor of the kingdom) in his dynasty, and to open a new field to his ambition. The successes which ensued on the part of France, and the consequent discomfiture of the allies, are too strongly impressed upon the recollection of our readers to require detail. The battle of Austerlitz, fought December, 1804, destroyed the Austrian and Russian confederacy. In 1806 Prussia took the field against France. The battle of Jena, fought likewise by Buonaparte in person, in October of

the same year, concluded the campaign, and overturned in its results the Prussian monarchy. A victory equally important was obtained over the Russians in Friedland, in June, 1807 ; and another of still greater magnitude was gained over the Austrians at Wagram, in July, 1809 ; both of which were followed up by a peace, so much to the disadvantage of the vanquished party, that the continent, in a manner, was placed at the feet of the conqueror.

In the midst of these brilliant exploits, Buonaparte experienced infinite mortification at the maritime greatness of England, augmented by the memorable victory off Trafalgar, and (from circumstances upon which it is unnecessary to dwell) much serious opposition in a quarter the most hopeless and unexpected. The Spanish nation, the ancient and faithful colleague of France, insulted and betrayed, and aroused to a sense of its danger by his tyrannical conduct towards the conquered countries, formed the glorious resolution, in May, 1808, of resisting the colossal power of Buonaparte, and of maintaining its rights and independence. This determination, truly worthy of a brave people, was no sooner communicated to the English cabinet, than it met with the most enthusiastic support. Great Britain, as a pledge of its sincerity, entered at once into a treaty, offensive and defensive, with the Spanish government ; furnished the patriots with arms and treasure, and even marched a considerable force into the Peninsula to their assistance. And though the conflict has at times assumed different features, such have been the effects of the Spaniards, fighting under many disadvantages, that while Buonaparte, by the energies of his wonderful mind, was enabled in a few campaigns to subdue and annihilate the dis-

ciplined forces of neighbouring states, the French armies (whose losses have been immense) have hitherto been able to make but little progress towards the subjugation of that country. The war in Portugal, in which the British (taking a more decisive part in aid of a nearer ally) have acquired immortal glory, has already proved no less disastrous to the French legions than creditable to the valour of the Portuguese. On the issue of this magnanimous struggle of the two nations, for the preservation of their liberties and independence, upheld by the resources and the troops of England, the eyes of Europe have long been fixed. Should success attend the lawless projects of Buonaparte, he can reap, after what has passed, no honour in the contest. Should he fail, neither the splendour of his alliance with the house of Austria, nor the sense of his former achievements, will be ever able to cover his disgrace.





Portrait of Sir John Sutton, Bart.

## BUFFON.

GEORGES-LOUIS LE CLERC, DE BUFFON, born at Montbard, on the 7th of September, 1707, son of a counsellor of the Parliament of Burgundy, commenced his studies at the college of Dijon. At the age of nineteen, he formed an intimacy in the same town with Lord Kingston, whose preceptor cultivated the sciences; and in consequence of this connection they made together the tour of Italy. Buffon at that time manifested a prevailing taste for the mathematics. This journey appears to have altered the course of his studies. In Italy the arts and the important recollections of history take possession of lively imaginations and impassioned minds. Buffon, more contemplative than tender, was only struck with the grand scenes of nature, and returned impressed with the zeal of the naturalist. But his father, who had destined him for the magistracy, sent him to Ancers to take his degrees. Buffon there fought with an Englishman, whom he wounded, and returned to Paris. He afterwards made a journey to England, where he remained three months. At this period his travels and his youth ended. The first literary labours of Buffon, which he published, were translations of some English works. Hales's *Vegetable Statics* in 1735, and of Newton's *Fluxions*, in 1740. These he enriched with prefaces, in which is observable the lofty and dignified tone which characterises the style of his natural history. He was appointed in 1739, superintendant of the Royal Garden and Cabinets, which by his care were considerably en-

riched and improved. To adorn these collections and augment the means of study, he laid every quarter of the globe under contribution. Kings he rendered in some sort tributary to him, and pirates who despoiled the cases of natural history destined for the king of Spain, sent according to the address, those which bore the name of Buffon.

Buffon appears to have imitated nature, which produces her secrets slowly and silently. He employed ten years in collecting facts, in combining them, and exercising himself in the difficult art of writing. In 1749, appeared the first part of his great work "*Natural History, general and particular,*" which was not completed till 1767. To it were afterwards added several volumes more by way of supplement. He published successively the different parts of his Natural History. In 1771, his "History of Birds," and in 1779, he began the History of Minerals. He adopted this plan to conceal, it is said, the chain of his ideas from vulgar minds, and to protect himself from the persecution which the clergy and the parliament might exercise against books and their authors. In effect, he was attacked by the Sorbonne almost as soon as he began to publish. He had the prudence to produce satisfactory explanations for his tranquillity, which rather satisfied the *Sorbonique* vanity than the conscience of its professors. This is an example of the condescension which wise men owe to themselves and their enterprises. Instead of involving in quarrels and persecutions, which trouble their existence, they suffer envy and authority to have full scope; and by useful labours, by works which command, not obedience, but esteem or admiration, establish a power which will be ever paramount, that of truth and reason.

And here again the comparison already made applies with respect to the manner in which nature herself operates on a grand scale: it is by process of time and innumerable ramifications that reason and truth establish their empire, and not by convulsions and irruptions. It is not a revolution, a conquest; it is an order of things which receives birth from the successive action of principles and individual instruction. To this end every good work concurs.

As a writer, Buffon is admirable. Historian, orator, painter, and poet, he has embraced every style, and merited, as observed by Vic. d'Azyr, the palm of eloquence. He employs, as appears necessary, two different modes of writing. In the one a grateful steady light spreads itself over the surface: in the other, a sudden brilliant light strikes only on a single point. No one has more ably displayed those delicate truths which should be only developed to men. And in his style what consistency between the expression and the thought! In the exposure of facts his diction is simply elegant. When he applies calculation to morality he contents himself with appearing intelligible. If he details an experiment he is precise and clear; we see the object of which he is speaking. But we perceive without difficulty that it is elevated subjects he delights to write upon, and which command the extent of his powers. In those pictures where the imagination reposes upon any marvellous occurrence, like Manlius and Pope, he depicts to instruct. . . . Like them he waits the moment of inspiration to produce, and like them he becomes a poet. . . .” M. de Buffon, says M. de Saint Lambert, is one of those extraordinary geniuses which every mind might admire. Many writers of singular

merit have attained the various beauties of the style of Buffon. But he did more ; he revealed in 1749 the secret of his excellence, in a discourse before the French academy. There we find in a few pages all that has been most ably said and thought on the art of writing.

The private life of Buffon presents but few interesting details. His whole existence was a kind of consecration to glory. Every thing conspired to that end. What may be imputed to vanity, to weakness, and to egotism in another, becomes interesting when we consider the object he proposed to himself, his long and absolute devotion to the most noble enterprise. He lived eight months in the year in his retreat at Montbar : at break of day he repaired to an insulated tower, in which no one presumed to disturb him, whenever his genius was put in meditation. From thence he exercised himself in a retreat secluded from the rest of mankind. Free and independent, he wandered amid its seclusions : he hastened, moderated, or suspended his walk. Sometimes his countenance directed towards heaven in the moment of inspiration, and satisfied with his ideas ; sometimes collected, seeking not finding, or ready to produce, he wrote, effaced, comprised anew again to efface ; collecting, combining with the same care, the same taste and skill all the parts of his discourse, he pronounced it at different times, correcting himself at each delivery ; and satisfied at length with his efforts, he declaimed it aloud for his amusement, and as it were to recompence him for the trouble it had caused. So many times repeated, his polished prose, like melodious numbers imprinted itself on his memory ; he recited it to his friends, induced them to read it themselves in his presence. He then listened to it with the severity of a critic, and laboured at it without intermission.

The pieces which Buffon the most esteemed are the *Discourse on the First Man*, successively animated by the developement of his different sensations, the picture of the *Deserts of Arabia*, under the article *Camel*, and another representation on the article *Kamichi*. Prince Henry of Prussia, to whom he had read at Montbar the article *Cygne* sent him from Berlin a service of Chipa decorated with Swans, represented in all their attitudes; of which the prince had given the designs.

Louis XV. ennobled the estate of M. de Buffon. The Empress of Russia, Catherine II. corresponded with him. Montesquieu and Helvetius were of the number of his friends. J. J. Rousseau religiously saluted the threshold of his cabinet. The poet Le Beau celebrated him in a fine ode. In short, Buffon lived honoured by his contemporaries and by Europe. He was married in 1752, and left an only son, who suffered under Robespierre, in 1798. On the scaffold he said to the people, "Citizens, my name is Buffon."

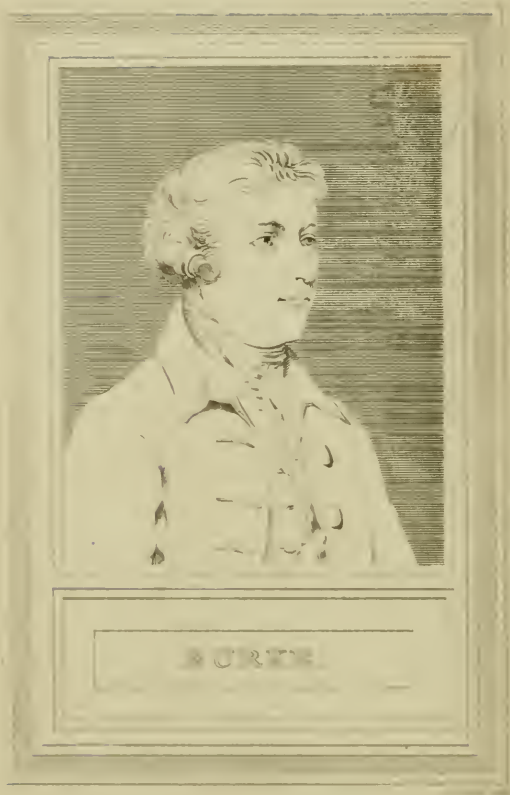
M. de Buffon's conversation was unadorned, but sometimes very cheerful. He was exact in his dress, particularly in dressing his hair. He sat long at table, and then seemed at his ease. His conversation was at this time unembarrassed, and his guests had frequently occasion to notice some happy turn of phrase, or some deep reflection. His complaisance was very considerable: he loved praise, and even praised himself; but it was with so much frankness, and with so little contempt of others, that it was never disagreeable. Indeed, when we consider the extent of his reputation, the credit of his works, and the attention with which they were always received, we

## BUFFON.

[FRANCE.]

do not wonder that he was sensible of his own value. It would perhaps have displayed a stronger mind to have concealed it. Buffon died at an advanced age, in April, 1788.



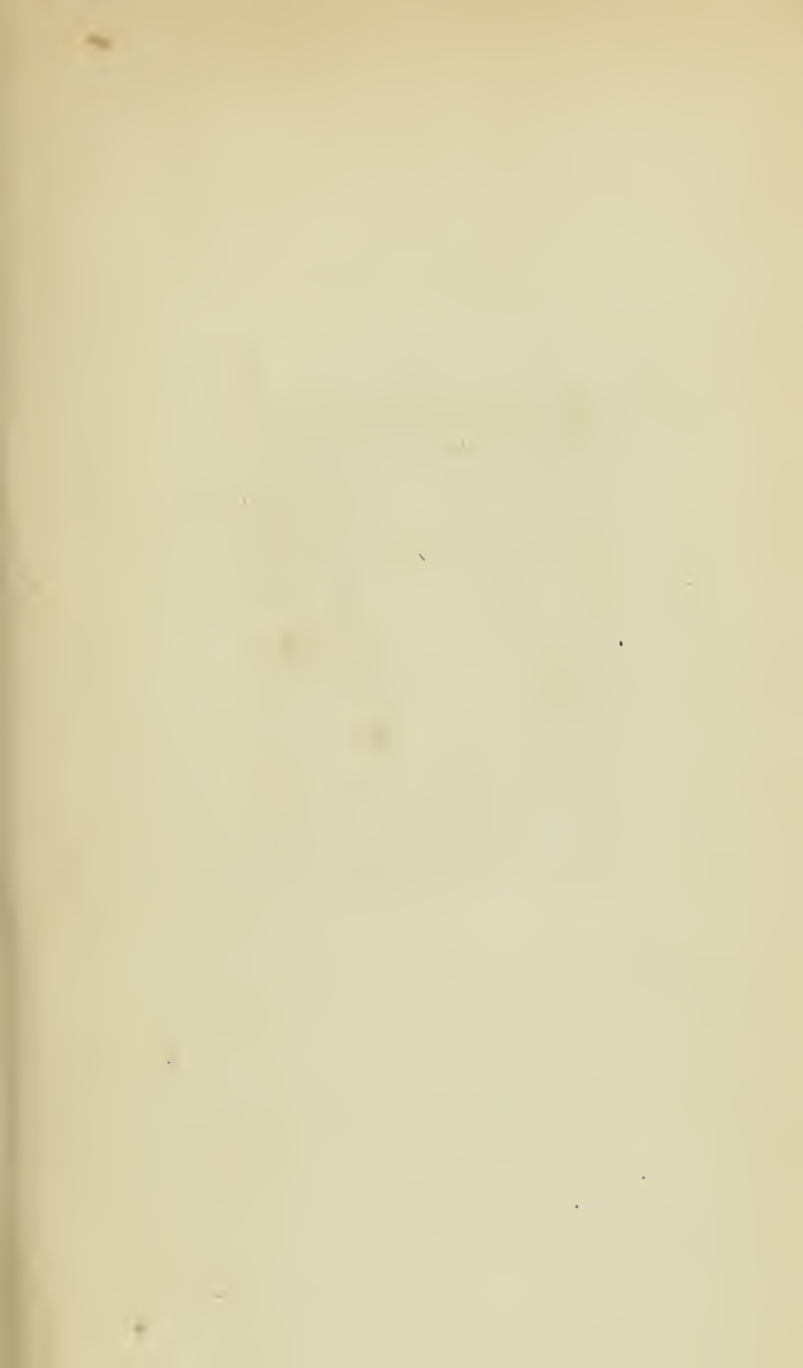


— MURIEL —

## EDMUND BURKE.

EDMUND BURKE, the illustrious subject of this memoir, as a writer and a statesman, was born at Dublin, in 1730. His father was a respectable attorney and a Protestant. He received his education from Abraham Shackleton, a quaker, at Ballytore, near Carlow. In 1746, he entered as a scholar at Trinity College, and in 1753 came to London, became a Member of the Middle Temple, where he supported himself for a time by writing for the booksellers. In 1756 and 57 he published two works, which gained him considerable reputation; the first was a pamphlet, entitled, "A Vindication of Natural Society; or, a View of the Miseries and Evils arising to Mankind from every species of artificial Society," which, for a time, imposed upon the friends of Lord Bolingbroke as a real production of that writer; the latter, "An Essay on the Sublime and Beautiful," a philosophical piece of criticism, written in a fine and elegant style, which has been frequently reprinted. In 1761, he went to Ireland, as the companion of his friend, Mr. Hamilton, and upon his return was made private secretary to the Marquis of Rockingham, then First Lord of the Treasury, and brought by his interest into Parliament for the borough of Wendover. From this moment he devoted himself entirely to public affairs. He was almost always on the side of opposition, in which he distinguished himself by the energy and warmth of his speeches. Through the long and unsuccessful struggle between Great Britain and the Colonies, Mr. Burke

took a considerable part; he afterwards gained great popularity, for his introduction of a bill for Reform in the National Expenditure, on which he spent prodigious labour, but was unsuccessful. The leading particulars of his political life, after this, were his exertions against Mr. Hastings, in which, with peculiar asperity, he used uncommon industry to fasten guilt upon that gentleman; his vigorous opposition to Mr. Pitt's attempt to form a limited regency on the King's illness, in 1788; and above all, his ardour against the actors and defenders of the French revolution. On this latter subject he evinced peculiar sagacity at the outset, and predicted, with remarkable precision, the desolation, bloodshed, anarchy, and misery, which have ensued. His zeal, in this respect, led to a separation from Mr. Fox, and many of his old associates. In 1790 he published his "Reflections on the French Revolution," which attracted wonderful attention, and produced a strong sensation on the public mind. In 1794, Mr. Burke withdrew from Parliament, leaving his seat for Malton to his son, an accomplished young man, who died shortly after. This melancholy event hastened his death, which happened July 8, 1797. After the disaster at Quiberon, Mr. Burke founded, in the neighbourhood of his retreat at Beaconsfield, an establishment for the education of French children, whose fathers lost their lives in that fatal expedition. He was very amiable in private life, had a fine taste for the arts, and was fond of gardening and architecture.





## CALIGULA.

THE Romans conceived an opinion that Tiberius had placed them above the reach of misfortune. Content, so long as any other person réigned, they acknowledged with much satisfaction as emperor, Caligula, the son of Germanicus and of Agrippina, who was born at Antium, in the year 12 or 13 of J. C.

It was said of this prince that he was a good slave and a bad master. The first act of Caligula was to annul the will of his grandfather by adoption, who had associated with him Gamellus his legitimate grandson. The senate, through hatred to Tiberius, conformed with much delight to the wishes of the new emperor, who gave to the Roman people the most magnificent hopes. He recalled the exiles, diminished the taxes, banished the profligate, re-established order, and abolished the crime of high treason which Tiberius had enforced. He was deemed for a time the happiness of Rome; but on recovery from a long and dangerous malady, Caligula suddenly passed from moderation to tyranny. His despotism knew no bounds. We behold him successively building a temple to himself, raising his statues to the rank of those of the gods, and the heroes of his country; corrupting the manners by his example, outraging the laws of nature, by sharing the bed of his three sisters, attempting to create a famine in Rome, by the monopoly of corn, and carrying his atrocity to such a pitch as to wish that the Roman people had only one head, that he might cut it off at a single blow.

The folly of Caligula was equal to his cruelty. Not satisfied with having put to death the most respectable personages, with a view of enriching himself by their fortunes, he had the presumption to raise his horse, Incitatus, to the rank of consul.

The reign of Caligula presents few events relative to foreign affairs. The treaty with Artabanus, the Parthian king, and the restitution made to Antiochus of the kingdom of Amaganes, are the most important. The enterprizes of Caligula in Germany, and upon the shores of the ocean, are well known; they only tended to put his cowardice in its full light. After having made great preparation to invade Britain, he contented himself with ordering his soldiers to fill their helmets with shells. With similar trophies he returned to Rome to solicit the honours of a triumph. Terror re-appeared with him; juridical assassinations commenced; when wearied out by so many crimes, some courageous officers, headed by Cherea, an officer of his guard, delivered the world from this monster, on the 24th of January, in the year 41 of J. C.





FRANCIS

FRANCIS

## CHARLEMAGNE.

CHARLES, to whom posterity has given the surname of the *Great*, was the son of Pepin le Bref and of Bertha. He was born about the year 742, in the castle of Ingelheim, near to Mayence.

After the death of Pepin, the bad policy of the times divided his kingdom between his two sons, Charles and Carloman. Neustria, Burgundy, and Aquitaine, were at first the portion of Charles ; but the death of his brother placed him in possession of the estates of Pepin, of which he appeared zealous of extending the limits, and of augmenting the glory and the power. His mind was first attracted towards the Saxons, turbulent and dangerous neighbours, whose audacity he was desirous of repressing. They frequently wearied his patience without ever abating his courage, and it was only at the end of a sanguinary but honourable war, on the part of the monarchy, of three and thirty years, that he was able completely to subjugate them.

Whilst the obstinacy of the Saxons retained the hero on the borders of the Weser, Italy, weak, disjointed, and in want of a ruler, called to her assistance the valour of Charles. He crossed the mountains, possessed himself of Verona, entered Pavia, and placed upon his brow the iron crown of the kings of Lombardy.

Dazzled by his exploits, the people, and even princes, hastened to enrol themselves under the powerful protection of a monarch of whom the entire of Europe either

admired the wisdom or dreaded the valour. The empress Irene offered him her hand; and Nicephorus, at the very time he had dethroned that princess, sought the friendship of Charlemagne, sent ambassadors to him, and shared with him the title of Augustus. The Caliph Aaron, appreciating the merit of Charlemagne, sent him many valuable presents; Rome proclaimed him emperor of the Romans, and the Saracens paid him homage for his conquests in Spain.

Master of France, Italy, and Germany, and the arbiter of the rest of Europe. Charles occupied himself in the cultivation of letters and of the arts; which necessarily lead to civilization and to domestic tranquillity. He had the talent of attracting and of attaching to his person all the learned men in Europe; among whom was the celebrated Alcuin, whom he loaded with honours, and with tokens of the purest esteem. He was himself fond of study, to which he devoted the few hours which the administration of his vast empire permitted; and the result of his converse with Alcuin was a sort of *Grammar*, which may be considered a singular monument of an extraordinary age. The code of laws of Charlemagne has been long universally admired. His genius extended itself throughout his empire, and conceived nothing but what was great and sublime. He was the first who projected the junction of the ocean and of the Black Sea, by means of a canal, which would unite the Rhine to the Danube.

This great man was more than once exposed to the danger of conspirators, whose projects he circumvented by his prudence and his fortitude. One attack, however, sensibly affected him: it was that promoted by one of his children, Pepin le Bossu. In this circumstance, so

delicate for a parent and so important, at the same time, for a king, Charlemagne had the address to blend the feelings of the one with the rights of the other, and restrained to perpetual imprisonment in a cloister his resentment against a rebellious and ungrateful son.

Charles would not have risen to this high degree of glory and of power, had he not united to the courage of a great warrior the talents of a skilful legislator; had not his genius, as extensive as profound, embraced at once every part of the administration, elevated itself, without effort, to the most sublime conceptions, and descended, with equal facility, to details in appearance the most minute.

Posterity has attributed to this extraordinary character the reproach of being too fond of women; and as frequently there is but a single step from censure to calumny, he has been accused of incest with his own daughters. Those who have fabricated or received, without due examination, an accusation of so serious a nature, should have confined themselves to a single reflection, which is, that similar atrocities have in general neither witnesses nor confidants, and that those even who might flatter themselves of being either the one or the other, would be only still more suspicious in the eyes of the unprejudiced historian.

Charlemagne, it is pretended, was of an extraordinary size. He was naturally mild, beneficent, and friendly. He died at Aix-la-Chapelle, in the year 814, at the age of 72.

On the *romantic* history of Charlemagne and the twelve peers of France, called Paladins, which was a title of honour given by Charlemagne to that number of valiant men belonging to his court who employed their

arms in his defence, many poems and wild stories of chivalry have been built, several of which possess much poetical imagery and expression, while others contain little else than dull narrative of fiction without imagination, and of events without interest. The principal of these paladins was Orlando, the great hero of chivalry, whose fabulous achievements filled all the books and provincial songs of that age. It is recorded that when William the Conqueror marched with his Normans to engage Harold, at the memorable battle of Hastings, his soldiers animated each other by singing the popular ballad of the Exploits of Roland or Orlando.





JOHN HENRY HENRY

## EARL OF CHESTERFIELD.

PHILIP DORMER STANHOPE, Earl of Chesterfield, born in 1694, and who received his education at Trinity Hall, Cambridge, was no less celebrated for his talents as a statesman and distinguished orator, than for his taste for the Belles Lettres, and his amiable personal qualities. He manifested from his youth a desire of pleasing and of rendering himself conspicuous; and this disposition, carried to excess, was the spring of all his actions, and frequently productive of the happiest effects. Naturally hasty, and of a temper extremely irascible, he was so highly affected at some words which escaped him at an early age, in a moment of passion, that he resolved to restrain his impetuosity; and from that instant had such an ascendancy over himself, that in whatever circumstance he was placed, he never betrayed the smallest emotion. He took his seat in the House of Peers in 1726, was chosen a member of the administration in the following year, upon the accession of George II. (with whom he was a particular favourite) in conjunction with Sir Robert Walpole, and sent ambassador to Holland in 1728. He then acquired so much influence by his wit and address, that the King conceived it to his interest to suffer him to remain there for several years. Compelled at length to return to his native country, by reason of indisposition, the earl signalized himself in the House of Peers by his oratory, and in the council by his talents and sagacity. He enjoyed for a time considerable popularity, and the remembrance of

## EARL OF CHESTERFIELD. [ENGLAND.

his administration as Lord Lieutenant of Ireland is still alive in that kingdom. He died in 1773, having preserved even to old age his usual gaiety and equanimity of mind.

The Earl of Chesterfield was accused of having changed his political opinion according to circumstances, and of having more than once attempted to subvert the constitution of his country. History, nevertheless, is not unmindful of his efforts in 1737, to maintain the freedom of the stage. He also contributed, it has been said, to render the Parliament septennial; although the act which extended the duration of Parliament for seven years passed in 1716, at an epoch when the earl had scarcely attained his majority, and he did not take his seat in the house until ten years afterwards.

The Earl of Chesterfield, whose accomplishments were of the most brilliant kind, left behind him several essays on politics and philosophy, which are esteemed, although the principles he has advanced are not generally approved. He is more particularly known as a writer by his "*Letters to his Son*," the style of which is admirable. In these letters, which were really addressed to a natural son, he has been reproached, and with some reason, for insisting infinitely more on the advantages of amiability and the talent of pleasing, than on the necessity of virtue and morality. They, however, contain much that is to be applauded as well as condemned.





MRS CLAYTON

*Portrait of Mrs. Clayton*

## MADemoiselle CLAIRON.

C. H. LEYRIS DELATUDE, known by the name of Clairon, born in the year 1722, of indigent parents, came prematurely into the world in a state of such weakness that her life was despaired of. Ill suited to follow her mother's profession, she complains in her memoirs of the ill treatment she received, which induced her to turn her attention to the stage. She commenced her dramatic career with a strolling company, from which she passed to the theatre at Rouen, performed successively at those of Ghent and Dunkirk, from whence she was advanced to the Royal Academy of Music. In this line she continued some months; but feeling that her talents were more suited to declamation than to song, she made her *debut* on the *Theatre Français*, in the part of Phœdra, with prodigious success, and was soon placed on the first rank, as an actress in *regal* characters.

A particular intrigue, and the refusal to perform with her colleague Dubois, notwithstanding the repeated clamour of the pit, caused her to be sent to *Fort L'Eveque*. To be released from thence it was required that she should make a public submission: at this humiliation her pride revolted. She then solicited her *apostolical* dismissal, which, as it could not be refused, was immediately assented to. She was at that time forty-two years of age. The excommunication levelled against players in general, not a little contributed to prevent her resuming her theatrical career. She attached considerable importance to what had passed; her col-

## MADemoisELLE CLAIRON. [FRANCE.

leagues laughed at her, but she still adhered to her resolution. An income of £1,000 a year, an intimacy with several ladies of quality, and a rich and amiable lover, were no doubt objects of consolation under her disgrace ; but she lost almost at the same time her protector and her fortune. The Margrave of Anspach then invited her into his dominions, from whence she was afterwards dismissed. On her return to Paris she lived in obscurity, and died on the thirty-first of January, 1803, at the age of 84.

Mademoiselle Clairon carried to a ridiculous extent the high opinion which she entertained of her talents, and never spoke to her friends, or her attendants, but in the tone of a theatrical princess. The stage is, however, indebted to her for many useful regulations. She was the first actress who rigidly observed in her attire the costume suitable to persons and to ages ; she also cleared the stage of a crowd of impertinent spectators with whom it was formerly filled.

Mademoiselle Clairon published some memoirs in the year 1798, containing several judicious precepts on the dramatic art, intermixed with an abundance of self-love, and a belief in the existence of apparitions ; excited no doubt by the flattery and cunning of her companions.





A. White sculpsit.

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## CLAUDIUS.

CALIGULA had just fallen under the poignard of the avengers of Rome, when the senate assembled to establish a form of government ; during the discussion some soldiers entered the palace, in order to pillage it : they found in an obscure place a man trembling with fear, they accost him, salute him with the title of Emperor, raise him on their shoulders, and present him to the legions.

This person was Claudius, uncle of the murdered emperor, until then unknown, and without military talents. He was born at Lyons, on the first of August, in the year of Rome 744 ; and his youth was spent in the society of women and of enfranchised slaves, which increased his natural timidity and indecision. The softness of his disposition, and his want of capacity, had estranged him from affairs : the study of letters occupied all his time. Mild, merciful, and just, he ascended the throne with a desire of doing good, and of reforming abuses ; happy had he begun by dismissing those flatterers who strove to corrupt him, and that crowd of slaves who were desirous of reigning under his name.

The murderers of Caligula experienced the resentment of the new emperor. He had not sufficient magnanimity to forbear punishing those persons who had destroyed the tyrant. Their death was ordered, and the senate did not dare to protect those whose courage and virtue they had celebrated.

The Roman arms then shone with new lustre in Africa and Germany. The Moors re-crossed the mountains before the legions of Suetonius Paulinus, and the Marsians surrendered the only Roman eagle which remained after the defeat of Varus.

Claudius at Rome occupied himself with the public good, and protected the regal character, then insulted. He threw abundance into his capital, he constructed the port of Ostia, he encreased the circle of Rome, by taking in the mount Aventine, he proscribed the religion of the Druids, and the abominable sacrifice of human victims, and restored to his throne Mithridates, king of Armenia. After having embellished the imperial city, he was desirous of ascertaining the number of its inhabitants. He ordered them to be numbered, and that they should add to the list the citizens spread over the whole empire. Their number amounted to six millions nine hundred and sixty-four thousand.

It was nearly at this epoch that Claudius resolved to go into England, and to deserve the honours of the triumph which the senate was willing to bestow on him, for the exploits of his lieutenants. Plautius and Vespasian had reduced Great Britain. Claudius assisted at the taking of several cities. The obsequious legions saluted him *Imperator*; and the senate, still more complaisant, erected triumphal arches. Anniversary games were instituted upon this occasion, and the famous Messalina, partook of honours, which were disgraceful to the senate and to the Roman people.

Until this epoch Claudius had ably supported his dignity; he merited no reproach except for the weakness of his character; this led him to the commission of the greatest crimes. Abandoning himself to the dissolute

Messalina, and to enfranchised slaves, still more depraved, he relinquished to them the government, and plunged himself into those excesses which corrupt the heart and debase human nature. Silanus, Valerius, thirty senators, and more than three hundred knights, were put to death. The treasures of the state passed into the hands of his unworthy courtiers, Pallas and Narcissus, and the lives of the citizens were at their disposal.

Fallen into a state of imbecility, Cladius became, in a manner, an absolute stranger to what was transacted in his own palace. It is well known that he signed the marriage contract of his wife, Messalina, with Silius, conceiving by this formality that he should avert the disasters which threatened him. It is also known, that when Messalina perished by order of Narcissus, he received the news of her death with indifference, and was heard some days after to enquire why she was not at table.

The mother of Nero, Agrippina, whose ambition equalled her pride, endeavoured to captivate the heart of Cladius, of whom she was the niece; in this she succeeded: Claudius was now under a new influence; and Rome, after having been the slave of an immodest woman, beheld herself governed by this imperious female.

Agrippina regulated every thing, but was principally occupied on the elevation of her son. By her intrigues, her address, and ascendancy over her husband, Claudius made choice of Nero for his successor, in preference of Britannicus, who was his son. Claudius, sensible of this injustice, became at length a prey to remorse, and appeared disposed to repair the injury, and to punish Agrippina, when the mother of Nero, anticipating his intentions, caused him to be poisoned, in the year 54

During the first years of his reign, Claudius was a prince without any dreaded character ; but in the latter period he became so deficient in intellect, as to be indifferent to his dignity and his weaknesses, his duty, and his rights. If his wife felt disposed to avenge the scorn of a lover, she found him ever ready to obey her commands. If his slaves, thirsting for the wealth of a citizen, advised Claudius to put him to death, he pronounced the decree of death. Camillus, governor of Dalmatia, caused himself to be proclaimed emperor, and wrote a letter to Claudius, replete with threats, if he did not relinquish the empire. To this Claudius would have submitted, had he not been prevented. He invaded the established orders of the state, in giving to his officers the right of administering justice. The wars of Marius and Sylla were only undertaken, says Montesquieu, to ascertain who should possess this privilege, the knights or the senators. The caprice of an embecile took it out of the hands of both ; an extraordinary instance of the success of a despotism, which had convulsed the universe.





A. J. Smith del.

## DOMITIAN.

DOMITIAN, the son of Vespasian, became only memorable in history by his elevation to the rank of Cæsar. His ambition appeared with his good fortune. We behold him, during the absence of his father, taking to himself the supreme authority, by distributing the first offices of the state ; a measure for which he was severely reproached by Vespasian.

After the death of Titus, whose days Domitian has been accused of shortening by poison, this prince ascended the throne. He appeared at first desirous of imitating his brother, and Rome imagined she had no more Neros to fear ; but his vices very shortly evinced that he was heir to the most wicked of emperors. Cruel, depraved, incestuous, and reviving the folly of Caligula, he commanded himself to be called God and Lord, and required that this title should be given to him in all the petitions which were presented. He passed the greater part of the day in catching flies, and in piercing them with a bodkin. It was upon this occasion that Vibius, upon being asked who was with the emperor, replied, with much humour, "Nobody, not even a fly."

The affairs of the empire did not flourish under Domitian ; he was, however, several times victorious. Jealous of the glory of Agricola, who maintained in England the honour of the Roman arms, he received him with coolness upon his return. The Dacians forced him to an inglorious peace ; notwithstanding which, he had

the presumption to bestow on himself the honour of a triumph.

After having depopulated Rome of its best citizens, after having deprived the most opulent families of their property, and devoted the christians to a horrible persecution, Domitian was seized with that remorse which attaches to tyrants. Restless, suspicious, affected by astrological predictions, every thing became an object of fear. Notwithstanding the care he took to prolong a life odious to the Romans, he sunk under the daggers of a band of conspirators, at the head of which was his wife, Domitia, on the 18th of September, in the year 96 of J. C.

Domitian was the last of the twelve Cæsars. In his youth, his taste for letters, and the fine arts, inspired a belief that he would have become their protector, yet by few sovereigns were they more despised. His timidity rendered him more cruel than the Neros and the Caligulas; and no generous sentiment ever took possession of his mind.





DE ZEPPE

## THE ABBE DE L'EPÉE.

CHARLES MICHAEL DE L'EPÉE, the son of one of the royal architects, devoted himself at an early age to the church, and was appointed a prebendary of Troyes. His relationship to Soanen, the bishop of Senes, whose opinion he espoused, caused him to be deprived of his functions; but his zeal to do good soon found another channel to display itself. The Abbe de l'Epée met by accident two young females, deaf and dumb, in whose calamity he felt so much interested, that he formed the resolution of restoring, if possible, these unfortunate beings to society, from which an insurmountable barrier seemed for ever to separate them in the opinion of other men.

The interesting detail of the first conception of this idea, and the chain of thought which immediately ensued, have been displayed by the Abbé Sicard, in his course of instruction to a person deaf and dumb. "The idea," he observes, "of a great man is to be highly prized, and the consequence of this idea was, that a language of gesture and of actions might exist as well as a language of sounds." Experience soon confirmed the hopes which the Abbé de l'Epée had conceived; his efforts surmounted the numerous difficulties he met with, and he was himself surprised, in the end, at the result of his exertions.

The active charity of the Abbé de l'Epée did not confine itself to the instruction of these two females, which gave birth to his useful enterprize. He transformed his

## THE ABBE DE L'EPEE. [FRANCE.

house into a school, where the children of the indigent deaf and dumb found in abundance all the necessaries of life. His fortune, without any assistance, was adequate to the support of this admirable institution, and his anxiety for these children surpassed that of parental fondness. In the severe winter of 1788, he denied himself wood and cloathing, and was induced by the importunity alone of his pupils to submit to a personal expence of 300 livres, (about 15*l.* sterling) for which he often reproached himself.

His useful labours attracted the attention of foreign courts. Joseph II. admired him, and placed a disciple under his care, in order that he might carry into Germany the benefit of this institution. He received likewise from Catherine II. the most advantageous offers, which he refused to accept, requiring only as a mark of the esteem of this princess, that she would commit to his instruction a deaf and dumb patient, a native of her dominions.

Enthusiasm at length led this reputable character into an act of indiscretion. Affected by the abandonment of a deaf and dumb youth which a family disavowed, he suffered himself to be led away by prejudice, repaired to Toulouse to prosecute the affair, and attached the authority of his reputation to a falsehood, which was judicially recorded.

The Abbé L'Epée died at Paris, in the year 1790. His disciples lamented his loss, and his memory will long be honoured by posterity.





Engraved by James Heath, London, 1793

## EUCLID.

EUCLID of Alexandria, whom we shall not confound, as Valerius Maximus has done, with Euclid of Megara, flourished during the time of Ptolemy, the son of Lagus, about 300 years before J. C. The period of his birth is uncertain, and the particulars of his life almost unknown. All that can be relied upon is, that he greatly distinguished himself by his knowledge of the mathematics, and taught the elements of the science at Alexandria, in a manner the most luminous and exact. Ptolemy became his pupil, and his school was so famous, that Alexandria continued for ages the great university for mathematicians.

Euclid directed his studies principally, if not solely, to speculative geometry. He has left us a work entitled "*The Elements of Geometry*," in fifteen books. It is, however, doubted, by some writers, whether the last two books were written by him; they have been attributed to Hypsicles, another geometrician of Alexandria. These *Elements* contain a series of propositions, which are considered the basis and foundation of all the other parts of mathematics. They have been generally estimated as one of the most precious monuments of antiquity which have reached our hands. Euclid had likewise written on optics, music, and other scientific subjects. He was so respected, that Plato himself a mathematician, being asked concerning the building of an altar at Athens, referred his enquirers to the mathematician of Alexandria.

It has been remarked that the celebrated-Pascal, at

the age of 12, without having even read any book of geometry, or being in any manner instructed in the science, was enabled, by the force of his own genius, to demonstrate one of the most difficult propositions of Euclid.

The works of this famous mathematician have been published at Oxford, by Gregory, in two volumes, folio, 1703. Burmann has given an edition of his *Elements*, Leipsick, 1769, in 8vo. They have been translated into German, by M. Lorenz, Halle, 1781; and in French by Le Pere de Chales, 1746, in quarto.





*Engraving of the Bust of Faustina*

## FAUSTINA.

IF virtue appears hereditary in certain privileged families, vices are sometimes as fatal a succession, which increase almost always in the hands of those who receive them. Among the examples of this melancholy truth, we may place in the first rank the Empress Faustina, the daughter of that Faustina, who was married to the Emperor Antoninus, wife of Marcus Aurelius, the philosopher.

An eye witness of the irregularities of an immodest parent, Faustina, led away by the warmth of her passions, plunged, at an early age, with unblushing effrontery into the career of voluptuousness. The recollection of her depravity restrains the pen of the historian, and imposes on him the duty of covering with a thick veil the shameful picture of the life of another Messalina.

Marcus Aurelius being sensible of the misconduct of his wife, thought it prudent with philosophical composure to raise himself above popular prejudice; and to despise the raillery which was levelled at his destiny, and in a particular manner at the indifference with which he submitted to his disgrace. He replied to those friends who advised him to repudiate a woman who had dishonoured his bed: "By dismissing her I must relinquish the empire which she brought me as a portion." This excellent husband did more than tolerate her sensuality: he was even desirous of manifesting his regard, as if she had merited his tenderness and the esteem of Rome. He honoured her with a title until

then unknown. He called her "*Mere des armées et des camps.*" Her favourites, far from experiencing the effect of his anger, were raised by him to the most important stations. It may be said, that to dishonour him was to create a title to his protection.

Faustina having followed him in a journey into Asia, died in a village of Cappadocia, called *Halala*, of sudden and unexpected disorder, which immediately carried her off. After her death the stoicism of Marcus Aurelius again displayed itself, by the honours that he rendered to the memory of his empress. He gave her name to a village where she had formerly resided, and established there a Roman colony. In short, what surpasses all wonder and credibility, he compelled the senate, to raise to the rank of the Gods, a woman who had been the opprobrium of the world.





F C X.

## FOX.

CHARLES JAMES FOX, who died in 1806, one of his majesty's principal secretaries of state, may justly be considered as one of our greatest contemporaries. For more than twenty years he headed the opposition in the House of Commons, and was the constant political adversary of Mr. Pitt. This struggle between two such eminent men gave the greatest interest to all the debates during that period, and fixed the attention of all parties.

In truth, the war of which the independence of America was the object; the long-pending trial of Hastings, the governor of India; the French revolution, and the great struggle to which it gave rise; the abolition of the slave trade; the emancipation of the catholics of Ireland; and the important question of the regency, were discussions highly susceptible of interest. In slightly reviewing these great events, we shall merely observe, that Fox strenuously opposed the declaration and continuance of the war against America, and foretold its disgraceful issue; and that he contended with equal energy against the rash and ineffectual attempts to crush the spirit of freedom in France. Upon these occasions he fearlessly risked the loss of his popularity. And when, as minister, he had it in his power to act upon the principles which he had always professed, he was on the point of realizing the high expectations raised by his splendid notions in favour of peace, when death closed his mortal career. This is a short sketch of Fox's career as a statesman, upon which it must be left to posterity to decide.

His private character will subject him to different opinions. While living he had many warm admirers and friends, as well as many who censured his excesses and regretted his dissipation.

He was sprung from a family distinguished for prosperity and talents. Sir Stephen Fox was the first who distinguished himself. He had served the Stuarts in their exile, and largely partook of their bounty upon their restoration. His descendant, Henry Fox, afterwards Lord Holland, was early remarkable as a strong and energetic speaker in the house, became at last secretary of state under George II.; but the untoward circumstances which accompanied the commencement of the seven years' war, having compelled the king to change his ministry, Mr. Pitt succeeded to the seals in the room of Lord Holland, who was made paymaster of the forces, and in that station acquired an immense fortune.

Then arose the spirit of rivalry between the two families, which the fathers transmitted to their children. Charles James Fox was the third son of Lord Holland, by whom he was almost idolized on account of the great qualities he displayed, and particularly his talent for public speaking. He encouraged this free disposition to eloquence, as if to gratify in anticipation his jealousy of Pitt. The latter was at the same time cultivating with equal zeal and assiduity the great talents which his second son promised to display.

The fondness of the father admitted of no restraint upon the childhood and youth of Fox. This culpable neglect may account for, though it cannot justify, the many irregularities in which he afterwards indulged, and which led to the utter dissipation of his fortune. At

the early age of six, he seized a superb watch of his father, and threatened to break it: the father represented the folly of such an act; but the child actually dashed it in pieces, without any farther opposition or punishment. While Lord Holland was in administration, he submitted to another whim of his son, that of emptying an ink-bottle upon a long dispatch which he had been writing, and which he was compelled to begin afresh. At another time he actually threw into the fire dispatches of the utmost importance, merely because he pretended not to approve of the contents. Lord Holland promised that he should assist at the explosion of a mine, which had been laid for the demolition of a wall at Holland House; but the workmen having effected it sooner than was expected, the indulgent father had the wall entirely rebuilt, that it might be destroyed again in the presence of his son. If such was the infancy of Charles Fox, it was to be expected as he grew up his passions would meet with as little controul; and that the father would have to exert the same patience and resignation in the payment of the larger debts which his favourite son incurred by gaming and every other excess.

Yet with all this propensity to extravagance and profusion, he completed his studies with great credit at Oxford, though pleasure appeared to be his chief employment. He returned from college sufficiently skilled in the learned languages, to read the best authors with the greatest precision and accuracy. He was only eighteen when he set out upon his first excursion to the continent, where his excesses certainly outstripped the fondness and indulgence even of such a father as Lord Holland. Among other debts contracted during this

tour, was one of 16,000*l.* at Naples alone. Before the death of his father he had anticipated all the benefit which he could reasonably expect from his family; and though he inherited by will property to the amount of 4000*l.* a year, it was soon dissipated, and he was left at last without any certain independent provision.

He was in parliament in the year 1768, before he was of age. In 1772, his great reputation had procured him a seat at the admiralty board; from which he was dismissed by Lord North, in 1774.

In that year Mr. Fox lost his father, his mother, his eldest brother, his situation as a head of the admiralty, and the last relics of his fortune. But it was also the year when his political principles acquired consistency, and he first hoisted the standard of opposition by advocating the cause of the Americans.

He was restored to the administration, and again dismissed upon the appearance of his illustrious rival, Mr. Pitt. His disgrace was attributed to the famous bill which he attempted to carry for the reformation of the government of India. His opinions too, which some years favoured the cause of the French revolution, considerably diminished his popularity. A schism took place even in his own party, and many of his oldest friends hesitated in adopting some of his new political tenets. They, however, liberally contributed to his support, by raising and securing for his life an annuity of 3000*l.* which they put it out of his power to dissipate. This affair was, however, transacted with so much delicacy, that there was no dishonour in accepting it. It was argued, that a man of his understanding and talents, if he had employed them in the pursuit of personal advantage, instead of devoting them to his country, might

have gained a splendid fortune; and that therefore it became all liberal men to place him in a situation as liberal as his conduct had been. He accepted, without meanness, what had been thus magnificently provided for him; but did not change a single opinion in consequence. He deprecated all Quixotic enterprises against the growing power of France, and frequently proposed that peace should be concluded with the republic. With these pacific sentiments he once more became minister in 1806; and was endeavouring to realize his favourite project, when death arrested his career, at a time when he was becoming much more endeared to the friends of humanity and peace.

The splendour of his funeral obsequies, and the crowds that accompanied the procession to Westminster, attested the high public sense entertained of his character, and regret at the loss of so able a statesman at so critical a period.

If the peace of his country, for which he had always struggled, was not indeed attained, he had the happiness to see it in a fair progress; and he was spared the pain of witnessing the intricate policy of modern times triumph over his favourite object. The partner of his heart was easy. The friends of his difficult period, and the old associates of his public career, were in the employment of the state, and receiving the honours that reward persevering virtue. He had through his short administration been an enlightened and benevolent minister, and nothing had detracted from his fame. Let those who wish he had lived longer, and attained higher honour, rejoice that he lived so long, and died regreted by the British people.







## GALBA.

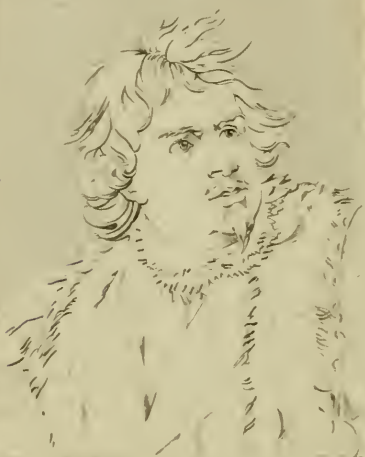
GALBA, the son of Servius Sulpicius Galba, who presumed to trace his origin from Jupiter and Pasiphae, was born on the 9th of January, in the year of Rome 570, in a small village of Italy, situate upon a mountain near to Terracina. He attached himself at an early hour to the study of jurisprudence and the sciences; and Livia to whom he was related, invested him successively with several dignities. Caligula gave him the command of his armies in Germany, at the head of which he was frequently victorious. In this state he gave an extraordinary proof of his moderation, by refusing the empire which was offered to him by his soldiers upon the death of Caligula. Claudius rewarded his fidelity by the government of Africa, which he quitted two years afterwards, in order to retire to Rome. He there lived for fifteen years, estranged from all public affairs, when he was made choice of by Nero to govern in Spain. Having reprobated the cruel means that were exercised by the rulers in the distant provinces, Nero, too imperious to admit of a censor, dispatched an order for him to be put to death. From this punishment Galba escaped, by causing himself to be proclaimed emperor, in which quality he was acknowledged by the whole of Gaul. "Galba," says Tacitus, "unfolded a secret to the Romans, fatal to himself, by teaching them that an emperor might be elected out of Rome."

Galba then, more than twenty-two, was of an athletic figure: his different situations had given him a perfect knowledge of men and things. He appeared worthy of

commanding the Roman people : but the massacre of his marine troops, his austere character, and in a particular manner the unlimited confidence he placed in depraved ministers, (a matter the more extraordinary, since he destroyed those belonging to Nero) alienated him from every man. He endeavoured to re-establish his reputation by nominating Lucius Piso for successor, whose illustrious birth and distinguished talents seemed deserving of the sovereign power : but Otho, whose ambition had been wounded by this choice, revolted against him. We are assured by Tacitus, that two soldiers undertook to place the empire into other hands, in which they succeeded, the Prætorians having followed the example of the insurgents. Galba thought that his presence would allay the storm, but in vain : he was assassinated in one of the squares of Rome on the 16th of January, in the year 69, J. C. after a reign of seven months and seven days.

When in private life, Galba rendered himself admired for his virtues ; but he knew not how to rise with his fortune, and his virtues became his defects.





GARRICK.

## GARRICK.

THIS celebrated comedian, the son of Peter Garrick, a captain in the army, was born at Hereford, on the 28th of February, 1716. He was descended from a French family, who being protestants, fled to England on the revocation of the edict of Nantes. He received his education partly in the grammar school at Lichfield, and partly under Dr. Johnson, with whom he went to London in 1735. At twenty he lost his father, and, finding himself without fortune, went to Lisbon, on a visit to his uncle. Upon his return to England he studied the law; but this pursuit, at the solicitation of his uncle, he soon quitted, and entered into partnership with his brother in the wine trade. This business he shortly after abandoned for the stage. His first attempt was made at Ipswich; in 1741, under the assumed name of Lyddal; and the applause he met with induced him to make his appearance in London, at the theatre in Goodman's Fields, in the character of Richard III. From this moment his reputation rapidly encreased. The other theatres were deserted, and Goodman's Fields became the resort of the people of fashion, until that theatre was shut up. Garrick then made an engagement with Fleetwood, the patentee of Drury Lane. To the fame of a celebrated actor he was desirous of joining that of an author. His first dramatic production was the *Lying Valet*, which had a prodigious run. In the summer of 1743, he played in Dublin to such full houses, that the heat of the weather and the crowds, occasioned a fever, which was called the Garrick fever. In 1747, he became joint

patentee of Drury Lane theatre, which laid the foundation of his fortune, and introduced on the stage many salutary reforms. Two years afterward he married Mademoiselle Violetti, an Italian stage dancer of extraordinary beauty. In 1763 he and Mrs. Garrick made a visit to Italy; and at Paris he saw the celebrated Madame Clairon, whose future excellence he predicted. During this tour he was every where enthusiastically received. He returned to England in 1765, and in 1766 he brought out the *Clandestine Marriage*, a comedy, written in conjunction with the elder Colman. In 1769 he celebrated a fete in honour of Shakspeare, called the Jubilee at Stratford upon Avon. This, in the form of an entertainment was afterwards produced at Drury Lane, and met with uncommon success. In 1776 he relinquished his concern in the theatre, for 35,000*l*. Loaded now with wealth and reputation, triumphing over all his rivals, and cherished by persons the most distinguished for rank and talents, Garrick, at the age of 60, turned his thoughts to retiring from the stage. The last character he performed was Don Felix in the *Wonder*, in which he even surpassed himself. According to custom, he was desirous of addressing the audience, but his feelings were too much affected;—his tears were the only expression of his gratitude, and the sympathy of the audience the best eulogy, and most flattering mark of distinction which Garrick had received. On closing his theatrical career he retired to Hampton, where he devoted his hours to literature, blest with the society of friends whom he respected, and of men of letters whom he revered. In 1773 he became a member of the Literary Club, which led him to an intimacy with men of the highest attainments in literature and the arts. He died at his

house, in the Adelphi, on the 20th of January, 1779, at the age of 63, and was buried at Westminster Abbey, where a handsome monument has been erected to his memory by private friendship.

Inheriting the talents of Pylades, of Roscius, and Batyllus, Garrick possessed, by nature, all the qualities necessary to an actor: a body well proportioned and full of grace, a voice clear and sonorous, and a most retentive memory: his figure was lively and animated; his mind developed itself upon his countenance, and his eyes displayed all that he was desirous of expressing. Of his talent for imitation and mimicry, the following extraordinary instance is recorded. During his travels in France he was desirous of seeing the court. Seated in the gallery through which the king was accustomed to pass to hear mass, Louis XV., the Dauphin, the Duke of Orleans, M. M. d'Aumont, de Richlieu, and de Brisac, directed, for a time, their attention to the English Roscius. Garrick lost nothing of this spectacle. Having invited his friends to supper,—he said to them, “I have just seen the court, and I will give you a specimen of the extent of my memory.” He then ranged his friends in two rows and, passing through them, imitated in succession, to the surprise of the spectators, the very gait, features, and character of the monarch, and the illustrious personages he had seen.

Some time after his retirement from the stage, Garrick was introduced at St. James's, and received in a manner peculiarly flattering. He had been long previously solicited by his friends to offer himself for a seat in parliament; but this he constantly declined, from a persuasion, as he said, that he could perform his part better at Drury Lane than at a Westminster.

## GARRICK.

[ENGLAND.

Mr. Garrick was hospitable and generous, but very vain and fond of flattery. He wrote several dramatic pieces, prologues, epilogues, songs, and epigrams; in the last he excelled. His works were collected and printed in 1782, in 2 vols. 8vo.





R. J. Smith del.

## GIBBON.

THIS celebrated historian was born at Putney, in 1737, of a genteel family. Being of a delicate constitution, he was first placed at a private school at Kingston, and next at Westminster, from whence he was removed to Magdalen College, Oxford. At an early age he devoted himself to books of controversial divinity, and particularly those between the papists and protestants. In 1753, conceiving that the truth lay only on the side of the Romanists, he renounced the protestant religion in the presence of a popish priest in London. His father was greatly concerned at this defection in an only son, and to reclaim him sent him to Lausanne, in Switzerland, under the care of Mons. Pavilliard. By the instruction of this protestant divine, he became convinced of the errors of the Romish church, and received the sacrament, according to the reformed communion, on Christmas day, 1754. While at Lausanne he pursued his classical studies with infinite success, and attained a proficiency in the French language. It was there he fell in love with the daughter of a minister, whom he was dissuaded from marrying by his father, which induced him to live single the remainder of his life. This lady afterwards became the wife of the celebrated Necker. After a retirement of five years he returned to England, where he began to collect a noble library, and those studies which had embellished his retreat at Lausanne proved to him a source of refined pleasure in the bustle of London.

In 1761, Gibbon published in French, a small volume, entitled "*Essai sur l'étude de la Littérature*," which possesses considerable merit. He was at this time a captain in the Hampshire militia. This work met with considerable success in France, and caused the author to be favourably received into the first circles at Paris, on his quitting the army, in 1763. From Paris he proceeded to Lausanne, and from thence into Italy. While sitting in the ruins of the capitol at Rome the idea of writing the Decline and Fall of that mighty empire presented itself to his mind. This plan, confined at first to the decay of the capital, soon extended to that of the whole empire, and requiring on the part of Mr. Gibbon the utmost assiduity and labour, compelled him, in order to fulfil the task he had imposed on himself, to abandon the classical authors, which had been the delight of his youth, and to plunge into the obscure history of the lower empire. In 1767 he assisted M. Deyverdun in writing the *Memoires Litteraires de la grande Bretagne*. In 1770 Mr. Gibbon published in English, a pamphlet, entitled, "Critical Observations on the Sixth Book of the *Æneid*," the design of which was to refute Warburton's Hypothesis on the descent of *Æneas*. In the same year, by the death of his father, he came into the possession of the family estate, and in 1774, was returned to parliament for the borough of Liskeard. At length, in 1776, appeared the first volume of his great work, "*The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*," which was afterwards extended to six volumes quarto. On the merits of this celebrated performance it is unnecessary to speak. It procured him from Hume and Robertson the most flattering testimonies of applause, and placed him on the first rank as an historian.

It must not, however, be passed over, that in this truly splendid history, the author commenced an insidious attack against Christianity in several places, but especially in two chapters of the first volume, on the growth and progress of that religion. The opinions he advanced were opposed by several writers, to one of whom only, Mr. Davis, who had charged the author with want of fidelity, did Mr. Gibbon condescend to reply. He was next employed by ministers in writing a memoir in justification of this country's going to war with France, for the part taken by that court in the American contest. This piece was written in French, and very generally admired. For this service he obtained a seat at the Board of Trade, which he held till the abolition of that Board, by Mr. Burke's bill. In 1783, he retired to Switzerland, where he employed himself in completing his history, and returned to England on the commotion occasioned to neighbouring states by the French Revolution, where he died of a dropsy, January 16, 1794.

The labours of Gibbon, even had the result been less important, would have entitled him to the highest esteem. Many a learned man has doubtless devoted his life to scientific researches, but few have rendered to study a more disinterested homage than Mr. Gibbon. During twenty-five years of his life he never laboured to increase his fortune, nor did he toil for literary fame. But his passion for study, though excessive, did not estrange him from the pleasures of social life; he carried into society the utmost courtesy and gaiety of manners: nevertheless, his natural timidity restrained him from intermeddling in public affairs; and during

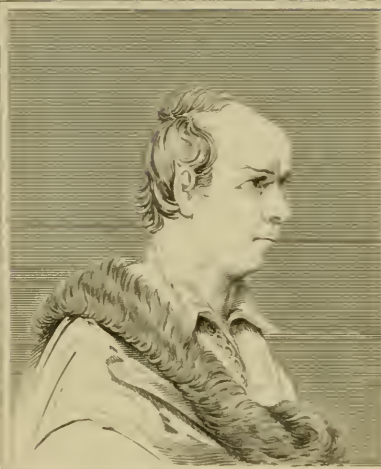
## GIBBON.

[ENGLAND.

the eight years which he sat in parliament prevented him from distinguishing himself as a speaker.

After his death appeared his posthumous works, with his *Memoirs*, written by himself, and edited and finished by his friend Lord Sheffield.





GOLD SMITH.

## GOLDSMITH.

THIS celebrated writer during the whole period of his life was an inexplicable enigma. He was at once poor and prodigal, a gamester and a moralist; simple in his manners, yet at times excessively proud: alternately benevolent and tender, morose and forbidding, his character presented a perpetual contrast, in some measure consonant with the vicissitudes of his life.

Oliver Goldsmith was born, according to some writers, in 1731, at Pallas, in the county of Longford, in Ireland, and in the opinion of others, at Elphin, in 1729. His father was a clergyman, who gave him a good education, and sent him to Trinity College, Dublin, from whence he removed to Edinburgh to study physic. While in that city he had the imprudence to become security for a fellow student, on which account he was obliged to escape to England, but was arrested at Sunderland, and released by two college friends, whom he met with there. He then went to Holland, and travelled through Flanders and part of Germany on foot, from whence he accompanied an English gentleman to Genoa, and the south of France.

On his return to England in 1758, friendless and unprotected, he became usher in a school at Peckham: in that situation he did not remain long, but settled in London, where, being reduced to a low state, he subsisted by writing for periodical publications. One of his first performances was "An Enquiry into the State of Polite Learning in Europe:" but he sprung from

obscurity in 1765, by the publication of his poem, entitled *The Traveller, or a Prospect of Society*. The merits of this production having attracted the notice of Dr. Johnson, he hastened to visit the author in his retirement, and became at once his benefactor and his friend.

The year following appeared his beautiful novel of *The Vicar of Wakefield*, and from this moment he appeared in easy circumstances. He took chambers in the Temple, where he lived for a time in a reputable way, but the liberality of his temper, and a propensity to gaming, involved him in frequent difficulties. In 1768 he brought out his comedy of the "*Good Natured Man*," but its reception was not equal to its merits. In 1770 he published the "*Deserted Village*," a poem in point of description and pathos above all praise. His play of "*She Stoops to Conquer*," followed in 1772, which still holds possession of the stage. Besides these performances he produced a number of other valuable works, and died by taking an extravagant dose of James's Powder, April 4, 1774. He was buried in the Temple church-yard.

As a poet and prose writer, the fame of Goldsmith is immortal. His *Vicar of Wakefield*, under the form of a novel presents an excellent treatise of morality, and developes, in a manner the most admirable, this beautiful thought: "*Craignez heureux, esperez infortunéz.*" His poems, the style of which is a model of grace, sweetness, elegance, and dignity, are impressed on the memory of every admirer of poetical compositions. His *Traveller* was regarded by Dr. Johnson as the finest poem which had appeared since the time of Pope.





HAMPDEN

## HAMPDEN.

JOHN HAMPDEN, an English patriot, was descended from an ancient family in Buckinghamshire, and born at London, in 1594. In 1626 he was elected a member of parliament, and became one of the leaders of the popular party. Like Cromwell, he was one of those zealous puritans who embarked in 1637 for North America, in order to enjoy the free exercise of their religion, but whom an order of council prevented putting to sea. About that period Hampden greatly distinguished himself by his opposition to the payment of ship-money, by which he acquired great popularity. This business was referred by the king to his twelve judges, ten of whom, notwithstanding the eloquence and able reasoning of his counsel, gave their judgment against him. Hampden, however, attained the end which he proposed to himself, and the preservation of the constitution and the liberties of his countrymen became the subject of his thoughts. He now became a leading man in the house of commons, where he rendered himself no less conspicuous by the ardour of his patriotism and moderation, than by his prudence and his valour. When Charles I. in order to conciliate the minds of his people, formed the project of calling into power the chiefs of the popular party, Hampden was made choice of to be preceptor to the Prince of Wales. He was one of the members of parliament whom the Earl of Strafford had it in contemplation to accuse as having excited the Scots to revolt, and one of those who were commissioned in 1641, to

accompany Charles into Scotland, to observe the movements of that prince, under a pretext of superintending the execution of the treaty of peace. He was, moreover, one of the five members accused by the king of high treason, in 1642, for invading the rights of his prerogative. This proceeding gave the commons a knowledge of their power, and of the weakness of the monarch; and the civil war soon after broke out. Hampden put himself at the head of a regiment of foot, and was shot in a skirmish by a pistol, in Oxfordshire, in 1643. The king, from motives of policy or generosity offered to send him his surgeon. His death caused considerable sensation in the minds of his party, and excited no less joy among the royalists.

The memory of Hampden will ever be held in veneration. He has been by some writers compared to Cato and to Brutus. Nevertheless, Hume, in rendering justice to his talents and his virtues, appears to deny him the title of a true patriot, leaving it a matter of doubt whether he was actuated by ambition, or by zeal for his country's welfare.

Lord Clarendon observes of him, that he had a head to contrive, a tongue to persuade, and a heart to execute any mischief. The events which followed the death of Hampden induce us to believe that he died in the zenith of his glory.





H. W. 1847

Engraved by J. H. Smith from a drawing by H. W. 1847

## HOGARTH.

WILLIAM HOGARTH, a celebrated painter, was born in London, in the year 1698, and bound apprentice to an engraver of arms on silver plate. About 1720 he set up business for himself, and his first employment was to engrave coats of arms and shop bills. He next executed plates for booksellers, the chief of which are the prints to *Hudibras*. His first performance, as a painter, was a representation of the Wanstead assembly, the portraits being taken from life. In 1730 he married a daughter of Sir James Thornhill. A few years afterwards appeared his *Harlot's Progress*, the success of which stamped his reputation, and was followed by other moral histories, no less admirably executed.

In these compositions Hogarth was not always solicitous about the beauty or the correctness of his figures; his chief aim seems to be to give to his personages, in a manner peculiarly striking, the expression of the passion by which they are supposed to be actuated. Innumerable details and allegories, conspicuous in his productions, tend to encrease the effect of the scene, and to bring forward, with greater energy, the principal characters. The Progress of Vice is always well portrayed, immorality constantly punished, and virtue rewarded, which, in fact, is one of the excellencies of his works. Hogarth went over to France, after the treaty of Aix la Chapelle; and while at Calais began to sketch a drawing of the gate of the town, for which he was taken up, but was soon after released. This circumstance he ridiculed in an excellent caricature.

Hogarth has been thought to have deviated from his proper sphere, when, in 1753, he published his *Analysis of Beauty*. In this work he has endeavoured to fix the standard of taste in this particular point, and successfully proved, by an infinity of examples, that the crooked line is that of beauty; and that circular forms are the most agreeable to the eye. This work has been translated into French.

Hogarth was very vain, and thought himself the first painter of the age. He was also remarkably absent, of which the following is an instance. "On setting up his carriage he paid a visit to the Lord Mayor; and having protracted his stay till a heavy shower came on, he was let out at a different door from that by which he entered, and, unmindful of his carriage, he set off on foot, and got home dripping wet. When Mrs. Hogarth asked him where he had left the carriage, he said he had forgot it." He was accustomed, it is said, to draw upon the nail of his thumb the figures which struck him, and the remembrance of which he was desirous to preserve. He died in 1762, and was interred in the church-yard of Chiswick.





HORTENSIUS.

## HORTENSIUS.

HORTENSIUS, whose eloquence placed him on the rank of the first orators of antiquity, was born at Rome, in the year 640 of its foundation, 113 years before J.C. and eight years before Cicero. He was called to the bar at 19, and at that age greatly distinguished himself in two brilliant causes. He defended the province of Africa against certain governors, by whom it was oppressed, and pleaded for Nicomedes, king of Bythynia. It is from this period that Cicero reckoned the forty four years which Hortensius passed in the exercise of his profession.

After having defended, with infinite success, the royal prerogative and the liberty of the people, Hortensius was intrusted with affairs of still greater importance ; but the war of the allies, by checking the flow of his eloquence, effaced for a time his glory, and opened to him a new career. The advocate of Nicomedes appeared as a soldier in the Roman legions, and merited by his valour to be raised, the following year, to the rank of military tribune. Peace, however, restored him to his former occupations.

It is well known that the dictates of friendship induced him to defend the despicable Verres, whom the people of Sicily denounced. At this moment he had an adversary worthy of him. The eloquence of Cicero, and the notoriety of the crimes imputed to Verres, compelled Hortensius to abandon his client, who condemned himself to exile.

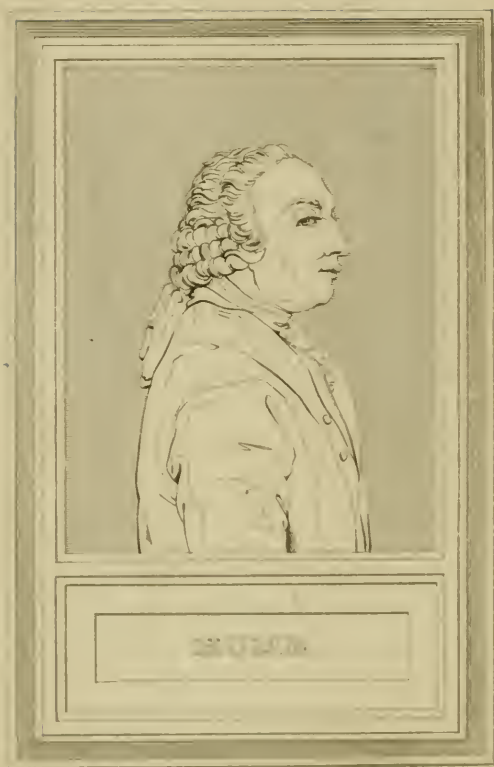
Hortensius was successively ædile and consul. He

was at first jealous of Cicero : he became at length his friend. These two great men considered themselves less as rivals than associates in the same honor, and the same glory.

Hortensius died at the age of 64, during the consulship of Paulus and of Marcellus, in the year of Rome 704.

It is from Cicero that we may form an idea of the merit of Hortensius. "His memory faithful and retentive," he observes, "recalled to him every thing he conceived; the same words, the same things, and the same plan. His style assumed, at times, an Asiatic tone, from the pomp of his images and the conciseness of his thoughts. The sound of his voice was soft and harmonious. The only reproach which attaches to this excellent orator was an affectation of gesture and declamation."





## HUME.

DAVID HUME was born at Edinburgh, on the 26th of April, 1711, of a family distinguished rather by its rank than its opulence. While he was yet in his infancy his father died, and he continued under the watchful care of his mother, who, though still young and handsome, rejected every overture that might have led to a second marriage, in order to devote all her attention to the education of her children. Hume, gifted with a natural quickness of understanding, pursued his studies with astonishing rapidity and success, and imbibed so decided a taste for philosophy and literature, that he found it impossible to apply himself to any other study. The intreaties of his family, and the necessity of improving his fortune by the emoluments of a profession, induced him to try successively the bar and commerce ; but an unconquerable aversion to these, and every other pursuit, rendered all his attempts abortive, and he returned with renewed avidity to his books. That he might be no longer estranged from them by the dread of dependance, he determined to prevent it by the strictest economy. He went to France, settled at first at Rheims, then at La Fleche, and in that profound solitude persevered in a plan of intense but varied studies. It was there his first philosophical works were written. Upon his return to his native country, he published, in 1738, his *Treatise on Human Nature*, and a more unfortunate production never was attempted ; to use his own expression, it fell *still-born* from the press. Disappointed, but not dis-

couraged, he was about to engage in other works, when he was unexpectedly, and without any solicitation on his side, tempted by offers which drew him from his obscurity, and ultimately advanced both his fortune and reputation. After having been sometime connected with the Marquis of Annandale, he accompanied General Sinclair to Venice and Turin. Some years after, he was appointed librarian to a public institution in London, a situation which probably first suggested the idea, while it gave him the opportunity, of writing his *History of England*. In 1763 he went to Paris, as secretary to the embassy under Lord Hertford; and after the departure of his principal, received the title, and executed the functions of Chargé d'Affaires. In 1767 he was made under secretary of state; but after having performed the duties of that conspicuous station for little more than a year, he renounced all public business, and, in 1769, returned to Edinburgh, where he spent the remainder of his life, in the centre of his family and numerous friends, and in the enjoyment of a handsome independence, which he deserved by his virtues and his talents. He died in 1776.

Hume has candidly acknowledged that a passion for literary fame was always predominant in him. It may be observed, however, that his reputation, now so solidly established, by no means kept pace with his literary labours; he may be said rather to have anticipated, than actually enjoyed, his celebrity. His first attempts completely failed; his *Essays* had a partial sale; but his *Treatise of the Human Understanding* was scarcely noticed. He began his history from the accession of the Stuart family, not intending at first to pursue the narrative through a long and tedious period of eighteen cen-

turies. Completely independent, both in mind and fortune, soaring above all popular prejudices, and with no other solicitude but for the triumph of truth over party-spirit, he had flattered himself that at length success would amply repay his labours. But how severe was his disappointment! an universal cry of indignation was raised against him. English, Irish, and Scotch, whigs and tories; members of the establishment and non-conformists; the religious and the profane; courtiers and plebeians, all combined to vent their rage against the man who had dared to shed a generous tear upon the fate of the First Charles and of Strafford. And what was still more unfortunate for the author, when this rage had subsided the book itself was forgotten. There were few who could even bear to read it; not more than forty-five copies were sold in a year. Hume, dispirited by this seemingly universal prejudice against him, had determined to leave England and settle in France; but on the probability of a war taking place, he remained and calmly continued his work. The second volume, which appeared in 1756, was more favourably received, and assisted the sale of the other. But his *History of the House of Tudor*, published in 1759, raised as great a clamour against him as the first. The whig party, then in administration, censured him for attributing absolute power to Elizabeth, and for his assertion that genuine British freedom could not be traced to more than a century back. At length he completed his work, in 1761, by the *History of the Plantagenets*, which, as he himself avers, met with very little success.

To console him for the indifference which his countrymen betrayed, Hume received ample satisfaction by the unreserved applause of the Continental literati.

While England indulged the most singular prejudices against this celebrated man, France, and the rest of Europe, had placed him in the first rank of historians. It is now generally admitted that there are few writers who combine in a greater degree all the qualities essential in an historian. It was the first time that philosophy could be said to guide the pen of history.

The other writings of Hume will also place him in a distinguished rank among modern authors. He has thrown a new light upon almost every subject he has treated, and will always be esteemed by those who are accustomed to meditation. As a philosopher he may be considered a disciple of Bacon and Locke; but among the disciples of these great men, he is peculiarly remarked for his aversion to all metaphysical theories. He combats with vigour and success those arguments *a priori*, those abstract principles which enable a man to praise whatever he pleases. It must be confessed, indeed, that his dislike of arbitrary suppositions ultimately led him to scepticism, if not to positive disbelief.

It gives us more pleasure to consider Hume as a man. His disposition was mild, benevolent, and generous; his temper even, placid, and gay. He was fond of society, and extremely beloved by those who associated with him. Always soaring above the petty prejudices of mankind; guarded in his own conduct, and indulgent to that of others, he preserved his own life and character from calumny; and it was only by his works that he was so often the object of malignity and hatred. He died as he lived. Attacked by a slow but incurable disease, he beheld, without dismay, the gradual diminution of his strength; and preserved almost to his last moments his ardour for study, his habitual serenity, and even gaiety

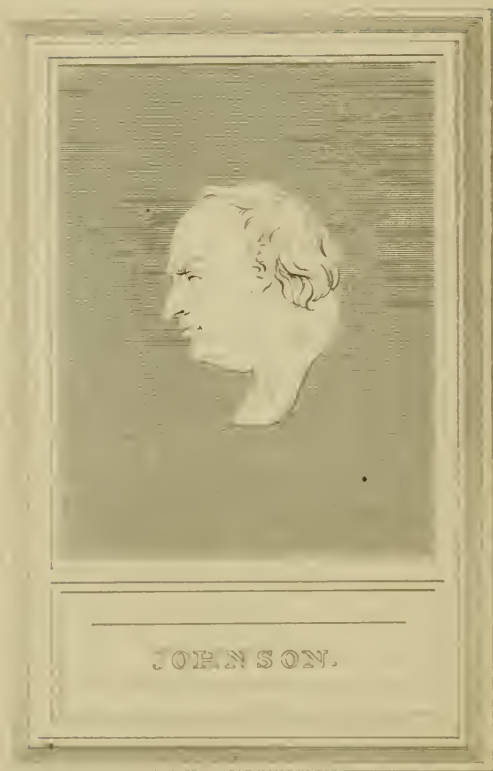
of temper. A few days before his death, he said to his physician, "I am going as fast as my enemies, if I have any, can wish, and as calmly as my best friends can desire."

We shall close this memoir of Mr. Hume with the following description of his character, written by himself. "I am, or rather was, (for that is the style I must now use in speaking of myself, which emboldens me the more to speak my sentiments) I was, I say, a man of mild disposition ; of command of temper : of an open, social, and cheerful humour, capable of attachment, but little susceptible of enmity ; and of great moderation in all my passions. Even my love of literary fame, my ruling passion, never soured my temper, notwithstanding my frequent disappointments. My company was not unacceptable to the young and careless, as well as to the studious and literary ; and as I took particular pleasure in the company of modest women, I had no reason to be displeased with the reception I met with from them. In a word, though most men, any wise eminent, have found reason to complain of calumny, I was never touched, or even attacked, by her baneful tooth ; and although I wantonly exposed myself to the rage of both civil and religious factions, they seemed to be disarmed, in my behalf, of their wonted fury.

"My friends never had occasion to vindicate any one circumstance of my character and conduct ; not but that the zealots, we may well suppose, would have been glad to invent and propagate any story to my disadvantage, but they could not find any which they thought would wear the face of probability. I cannot say there is no vanity in making this funeral oration of myself, but I hope it is not a misplaced one ; and this is a matter of fact which is easily cleared and ascertained."







J. A. Smith sculp.

Printed by J. A. Smith, No. 11, New York, N.Y.

## JOHNSON.

ENGLAND has now placed Samuel Johnson at the head of its most celebrated literati, its purest writers, and most rigid moralists: she justly considers him as the most judicious critic, the best informed, most ingenious and fertile writer of the last century.

He was born at Litchfield, in 1709, and in early life experienced the truth of what he has himself so forcibly expressed :—

Slow rises worth, by poverty depressed.

He endeavoured to establish a school at Birmingham ; but having no other scholars than Garrick and his brother, he determined to accompany them to London. He there commenced his literary career by writing for a public journal, in which he inserted many admirable pieces. Sometime after, having lost his friend Savage, he published the life of that unfortunate and eccentric bard, and gave a favourable idea of his own talent for discernment and just criticism. But what stamped his fame was his celebrated Dictionary, the mere conception of which evinced the man of genius, while its execution proved his extensive and varied learning. In the prospectus of this great work he detailed the plan which he intended to follow ; which consisted in determining the orthography of every English word, with its etymology, and the various senses in which it was used in different authors. When this prospectus appeared in the journals of the day, Dodsley, and a number of other booksellers,

agreed to defray the expences of this great undertaking. Johnson, thus encouraged, hired a house, employed several amanuenses, and during nine years devoted himself to this stupendous work with indefatigable zeal and activity. At the end of that period he published this pride of English literature, and the best model for every national dictionary.

But the attention of Johnson was not solely occupied by this engagement, important as it was. In the interim he had written his tragedy of *Irene*; which, for a long time, was rejected by the managers, and at length performed under the auspices of Garrick. This play, though written in that bold and manly style which distinguished all his works, and embellished by the graces of poetry, had only nine representations, and never obtained the success it deserved.

Johnson then renounced the stage, and undertook a periodical publication, in the manner of the *Spectator*, under the name of the *Rambler*. He was the sole author of the various papers, with very few exceptions; and in these he displayed the most profound knowledge of mankind, mingled with the most judicious criticisms upon the best established works of his countrymen. The publication of the *Rambler* induced Dr. Hawkesworth to engage in a similar miscellany. Johnson essentially contributed to its success, by furnishing several articles under the signature T, which are justly admired for their elegance of style, their strength of thought, and soundness of criticism.

As Johnson wrote for money, he successively published a great variety of works, among which we may distinguish *Rasselas*, the *Idler*, a few *political* pamphlets, and the *Journey to the Hebrides*.

But his most celebrated production is the *Lives of the English Poets*, which he undertook at the request of the booksellers, and which is perhaps unrivalled in the annals of biography and criticism. It was justly considered a most astonishing circumstance, that at his age, and so loaded with infirmities as he was, he should have been able to combine in one work so much sagacity and knowledge, appreciating with such accuracy the distinct merit of such a crowd of authors, and delivering his sentiments in a style so elegant and so rapid.

Johnson had for a long time established a club, which he had the pleasure to see frequented by the first literary men of the country. It was in the midst of such a society that he passed the latter years of his life. His income, since 1762, had been more ample and secure, by the enjoyment of a pension of 300*l.* per annum, which the king had conferred upon him, *not for what he was to do, but for what he had done*: these were the very words of the minister, when he announced the royal benefaction.

While death seemed to be at a distance, Johnson had dreaded its very name; but his fears vanished when he was informed that he had only two days to live. He expired on the 13th of December, 1784. It was not merely in his last moments that his piety was displayed, he had always been a religious man: but while his faith readily admitted every article of Christian belief, he was singularly incredulous whenever religion was not concerned. This made Hogarth say, "Johnson believes in the Bible, but he believes in nothing else."

As a writer, few have done such essential service to this country, by fixing its language and regulating its morality. In his person Johnson was large, robust, and

unwieldy. In conversation violent, positive, and impatient of contradiction. He was a zealous advocate for truth, and for the Christian religion, as professed in the Church of England. In politics he was a Tory, and at one period of his life a friend to the house of Stuart. He had a noble independence of mind. His judgment was uncommonly acute, his imagination quick and ready, his memory tenacious, and his conversation brilliant and instructive.

His works have been published in twelve volumes octavo.





QUEEN

1812

Portrait of Queen Victoria

## LE KAIN.

AFTER having tried his powers in an indifferent company of comedians that occasionally performed dramatic representations at the Hôtel de Tonnerre, Le Kain made his *debut* at the *Theatre Français*, in the character of Titus, in the tragedy of *Brutus*, on the 14th September, 1750. His performance, though highly applauded by some, was condemned by others, and so commented upon by his rivals, that he was on the point of entering into an engagement in a foreign country, when the Princess of Robecq honoured him with her support. At the end of two years Madame de Pompadour permitted him to act the part of *Orosmane*, at Versailles. He there triumphed over the insensibility of the king, who, on quitting the theatre, exclaimed, "*he has made me weep who seldom shed tears.*" This expression established the reputation of Le Kain. He was, nevertheless, an object of envy; he was called by his enemies the *convulsionnaire*, and to add to his vexation, he was attacked by a malady which confined him to his chamber for six months. During this period he profoundly reflected on the excellence of his art, and upon his re-appearance prepared his friends to see him but feebly applauded. He had in fact altered his manner of acting. His former vehemence, which seduced a portion of his auditors, he wholly abandoned, and his performance was so dignified and correct, that many pronounced he had lost all his energy. Le Kain, however, persisted in this style of

acting; the pit listened, the connoisseurs supported him, and every day he had the felicity to acquire new admirers.

Le Kain was of the middling size, indifferently made, and of coarse features; yet in spite of these disadvantages he compelled the public to exclaim, on innumerable occasions, *qu' il est beau !* The French stage is indebted to him for its attention to costume, to scenic propriety, and for the dignity and pomp at present attendant on theatrical representations.

Although he had previously suffered by a long indisposition he performed the character of *Vendôme*, on the 24th of January 1778, in which he even surpassed himself, and died on the 8th of February in the same year.

Educated by his father, who was a goldsmith, the genius of Le Kain was more solid than brilliant; his judgment was correct, and his heart excellent; and though accused at times of avarice, many unfortunate persons experienced proofs of his liberality. Voltaire called him his *Grand Acteur*, his *Garrick*, his *enfant chéri*, received him every year with much courtesy at Fernez, yet he never saw him perform at the Theatre Français. When Le Kain made his *debût* Voltaire was in Prussia, and upon his return to Paris, in the year 1778, Le Kain was no longer in being.





## ANGELICA KAUFFMAN.

MARY ANGELICA KAUFFMAN was born at Coira, in the country of the Grisons, in 1742. She was the daughter of Joseph Kauffman, portrait painter, a native of Bregentz, upon the lake of Constance, from whom she received lessons in painting and music. This latter art, for some time, took entire possession of her mind; but journeying with her father to Milan, she applied herself seriously to the study of painting, and copied a great number of works of the principal Italian masters. From Milan she repaired to Naples, in 1763, and from thence to Rome, in which city she prosecuted her labours with great success. In 1765 she came to England, where her reputation had preceded her; she was elected a royal academician in 1767, and received from the members of the society all the consideration due to her talents.

During her residence in England Angelica married; but having been unfortunate in her choice, the connexion was only productive of unhappiness. On her return to Rome, she entered again into wedlock, which proved more felicitous than the former union.

Few females have painted history with so much advantage as Angelica Kauffman. Her figures, of medium size, are light and graceful, her compositions poetical and ingenious, and her expressions, in general, happy and sprightly. Her colouring was soft and harmonious, and in the best manner of the modern Italians. In her latter years she gave more energy to her tints, by studying the Venetian masters. She had formed her style after

## ANGELICA KAUFFMAN. [SWITZERLAND

the antique, and was enabled to give the air of Grecian beauties to her female figures; in those of men she has been less successful; they, for the most part are wanting in vigour and character, and have the physiognomy of women.

The works of Angelica Kauffman have employed the most skilful engravers in Europe: she engraved with her own hand several of her productions, in an easy and flowing manner. She died at Rome.





## CLAUDE LE LORRAINE.

THE landscapes of Claude le Lorraine are models of perfection ; he had the talent of uniting beauty of situation to truth of colouring. Inferior to Poussin, in point of richness of Composition, he surpasses him in real gradation, and in the variety of the effects of light. He has the same advantage over the Caracci, Domenichino, and all the landscape painters of the Italian school, with the exception of Titian, who possessed a strength of colouring beyond all his competitors. Some Flemish masters are even superior to Claude in point of neatness of detail, and elegance of pencil ; but he has depicted in the finest style the foliage of trees and the character of their different species.

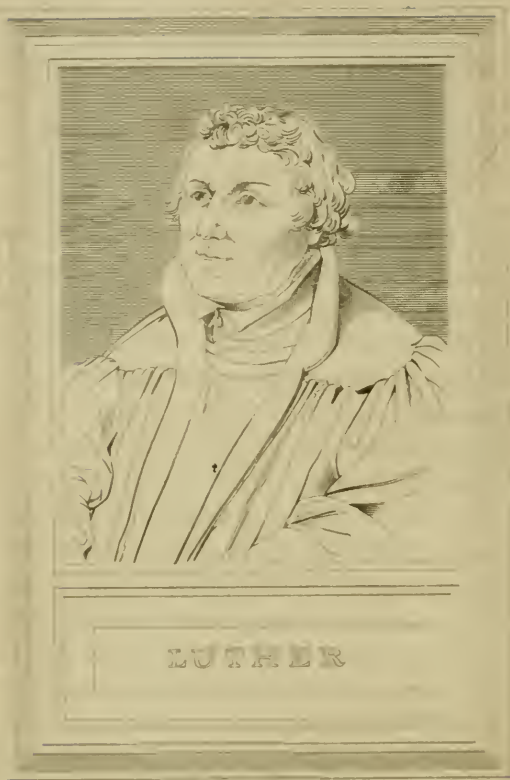
He is indebted for his extraordinary skill neither to the masters from whom he received his first lessons, nor to the vivacity of innate genius. Born of obscure parents, deprived of education, stupid in appearance, he scarcely knew how to write his name. The rules of perspective which he acquired from Goffredi at Naples, appeared to be beyond his comprehension, and he laboured for a time without any improvement. He applied himself to the study of the human figure. Those he has introduced in his pictures are below mediocrity, and so sensible was he of his deficiency of genius in that respect, that he frequently committed the task of enlivening his landscapes to a foreign hand. The superlative talent which he afterwards evinced was the result of excessive meditation and indefatigable study. He

## CLAUDE LE LORRAINE. [FRANCE.

passed hour after hour in contemplating, either in the meadows or on the borders of the sea, the effects of the light of the sun, at different periods of the day. He observed the appearance of the mountains, of the horizon, of clouds, and of tempests. Returning home full of those recollections, he took up his pencil, and never abandoned it until he was enabled to re-produce upon the canvass the objects which had previously struck him. We may therefore say that his pictures are in rivalry with nature; the more they are studied, the more perfect is the imitation.

Claude Geleé was born in 1600, in the diocese of Toul, in Lorraine, from whence he acquired his name. After leaving school, where he learnt but little, he was placed with a pastry-cook, an occupation which he followed to no greater advantage. He then went to Rome, and being out of employ, entered into the service of Augustin Tassi, a painter, where he acquired the art of mixing colours. While with this master he imbibed a taste for painting. As he advanced in his studies he proceeded to Naples, where he remained two years, returned to Rome, undertook a journey into Lorraine, from whence he travelled into Italy, where he settled, and arrived at perfection in his art. He long enjoyed the protection of Pope Urban VIII. and after having followed a laborious career, equally advantageous to his reputation and to his fortune, he died of the gout, at the age of forty-two. His works are very numerous, and are always sold at considerable prices. Many engravers, among others Vivares and Wollett have depicted the labours of Claude le Lorraine. He left behind him a great number of valuable designs.





LUTHER

## LUTHER.

A GENERAL system of corruption had crept in among the clergy ; luxury and ignorance were the character of the prelates ; they were swayed by ambition. The popes, who originally held their authority under the emperors, had arrogated to themselves the right of investing and deposing them. Their supremacy was established in such a manner, that in the 12th century a legate of the pope, because the Emperor Barbarossa attempted to shake off the tyrannical yoke of the holy see, replied with great simplicity, *and if the emperor does not hold his crown from the pope, from whom then does he hold it ?* In the next century, Boniface VIII. wrote to Philip the Fair—*Know that you are subject to us in temporal things as well as in spiritual.* In the fourteenth century John XXII. declares,—*that the Emperor Louis V. is an heretic, that he divests him of all his property, moveable and immoveable, of all claim to the empire, &c.* It was then vain to look for the traces of those virtues and talents which had distinguished the ages of Augustine, Jerome, and Ambrose. At length, princes tired out with the ambition of the popes, the people wearied with the scandalous lives and covetousness of the prelates, had, for a length of time, required a reformation in the clergy. Such was the state of things, when a plain monk, scarcely risen from the dust of the schools, undertook, by himself, to bring about so great a revolution.

This monk was Martin Luther, born at Eisleben, in Saxony, in 1483, and son of a common blacksmith. His

father, notwithstanding the narrowness of his circumstances, gave him a good education, of which he availed himself. Having been present at a fatal accident which happened to one of his companions, who was killed by a thunderbolt at his side, Luther considered this accident as a warning from heaven ; determined, contrary to the wishes of his family, to embrace a monastic life, and entered himself among the hermits of St. Augustin at Erfurth. There giving himself up with uncommon ardour to the study of the ancient languages, as well as to that of scholastic divinity, studies then much in fashion, he soon was able to become a professor in the university of Wirtemberg, where he alternately gave lectures of philosophy and theology with equal success. Luther, feeling his superiority, became by degrees more bold and enterprising. Courageous and disinterested, actuated moreover, by a strong passion for celebrity and a taste for innovation, he knew how to avail himself of the opportunity which was offered to him by the conduct of the missionaries sent into Germany by Leo the Tenth to sell indulgences ; and he thundered in his writings against the court of Rome. Perceiving that the moment for attacking it with success was arrived, Luther, after having loudly declaimed against the abuse of indulgences, attacked the indulgences themselves ; and the thesis which he published at this epoch, produced such a sensation in all Germany, that not only Frederick, Elector of Saxony, but also the Elector Palatine and several bishops, declared themselves secretly in his favour. Things were even carried to such a length that a missionary, named Tetzcl, was near having his brains dashed out by the workmen in the mines. Meanwhile, Luther being summoned to appear before the legate of the holy see,

courageously accepted of the invitation, notwithstanding the example of the cruel fate which John Huss had experienced. He defended himself with boldness. Far from setting Rome at defiance, he had written a letter of submission to the Pope ; but afterwards, tired with insults, his character naturally haughty, violent, and irascible, led him to retort. All Germany, fixing its attention on Luther, admired the intrepidity of a common monk, who alone dared so vigorously to censure the abuses of the pontificate, and who, treating the pope as his equal, burned his bulls, in return for his having burned his writings. Emboldened by his successes, and no longer fearing to attack the pope's infallibility, and afterwards carried away by passion, he soon attacked several articles of his dogma.

The Emperor Charles V. having convoked a diet at Worms, in 1521, in order to hear Luther, this reformer attended it with a passport, but refused to retract his bold propositions. At his return the elector of Saxony, his protector, kept him shut up in a castle, to protect him from the attempts of his enemies. It was a little after this epoch that the faculty of theology in Paris anathematized him, and Henry VIII. king of England, published several pieces against him. Luther, tired of being shut up within the walls of a fortress, soon appeared again in Germany, where his eloquence and writings still augmented the number of his sectaries. That which he published on the abolition of bishopricks, abbeys, and all kind of benefices, was eagerly adopted by the princes. Thanks to this new gospel: the greater part appropriated to themselves the riches of the churches and monasteries, which afforded them the means of repairing the deficiencies which their ambi-

tion or misconduct had caused in their finances. Some of them more wise, among others the Elector of Saxony, employed his wealth in the endowment of hospitals, or houses of education, and thus converted to the benefit of the indigent and progress of learning those riches which partly had for a length of time served to propagate idleness. Luther, by his new doctrine, having destroyed the celibacy of the priests, and being himself married, a crowd of ecclesiastics and nuns hastened to imitate him. From that time forth the reformation met with no obstacles, particularly in Germany, where it was adopted by all the northern provinces. The haughtiness and impolicy of the popes still augmenting his success, England, Holland, Sweden, Denmark, a part of France and Switzerland, were soon seen to shake off the yoke of Rome.

The emperor having convoked another diet at Augsburg, in 1530, in order to consult on the means of putting an end to this schism, and to reconcile at length the two communions; the decrees which were then passed were not admitted by the reformers, who protested against them. Then it was that the princes of that religion, already powerful, formed a league offensive and defensive at Smalcalde, in order to allay the storm which threatened them; but Charles V. embarrassed in a war with the Turks, granted provisionally liberty of conscience to the reformers, by a rescript given at Nuremberg, in 1532. Luther, then finding himself powerfully supported, published successively a number of tracts against the holy see, in which he did not always keep within bounds, nor pay a proper regard to decency. Finding among his sectaries many powerful princes, the pride with which he was intoxi-

cated contributed not a little to give to his publications that harsh and vulgar tone which predominates in them, and which, moreover, formed the basis of his character. Luther died in 1546; he had at his death the satisfaction to see his sect firmly established. He has left a considerable number of works, which have been collected at Wirtemberg, in 7 vols. folio. After his death his sectaries divided themselves into several branches; the sect of Calvin is that which has been most extensive.

The reformation of Luther has entirely changed the political situation of Europe, and has tended to restrain the ambition of the House of Austria. By it the temporal authority of the popes has been destroyed: stimulated by the rivalry of protestant ministers, the ministers of the Catholic religion have purified their manners, they have become more learned, and as a consequence we have seen the Bossuets and Fenelons do equal honour by their masterly pieces to the church and to the nation. In fine, the north of Germany, England, and Holland, have enriched themselves by the talents and industry of the French refugees, who fled from the persecution of the stupid directors of the declining years of Louis XIV.

The mind of Luther was ardent and impetuous, but honest, and earnestly bent to the discovery and propagation of religious truth. His manners were becoming his profession, and his whole life evinced a zeal for the glory of God, and the welfare of man. By his wife, Catherine de Bore, who died in 1552, he had three sons; and several of his descendants were living latterly in Germany.

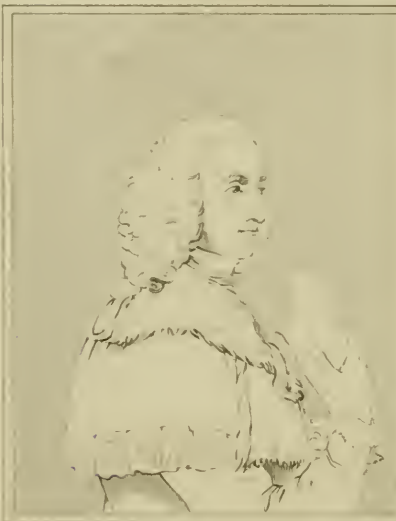
Luther's person was so imposing, that an assassin,

LUTHER.

[GERMANY.

who had gained admittance into his chamber to pistol him, declared that he was so terrified at the dignity and sternness of his manner, and the vivacity and penetration which sparkled in his eyes, that he was compelled to desist from his horrid purpose.





L. P. LITTLETON.

1864

Published by order of the Board of Trustees

## LYTTLETON.

GEORGE LORD LYTTLETON, the eldest son of Sir Thomas Lyttleton, of Hagley, in Worcestershire, where he was born in 1709, held a considerable rank among the noblemen who have cultivated letters and shone in the double capacity of statesmen and poet. His easy and sprightly talent, added to the amiableness of his disposition, made him very generally admired. The sex, in a particular manner courted his conversation, and was the object of all the effusions of his muse. His friend, Mr. Pope, became his model, whose manner he attempted to imitate, and, familiar with the harmony of his versification, he had at times the good fortune of approaching to the elegance of his master. His verses are more commendatory than critical; they please the female of sensibility rather than the man of science, and perfectly fulfil, says Johnson, the aim of the author, who only aspired to please. But this young nobleman, so tender towards the sex, so courteous in his manners, and polished as a poet, was in the House of Commons a determined Whig and exalted patriot, and one of the most violent men of the opposition; his style, so delicate in poetry, assumed in parliament an air of asperity. He spoke only in madrigals in society, and in epigram in public life.

Lyttleton announced at an early age his genius and facility. He was educated at Eton, from whence he removed to Christ Church, Oxford. While at Eton, where his application was much commended, he pub-

lished his "Monologue of a young Beauty retired into the Country," an ingenious pleasantry, which displayed in the author a greater knowledge of the female mind than might have been expected from his years. His *Persian Letters* soon followed. This work, in the opinion of Johnson, bears all the character of youth; it is full of that ardent love of liberty, so frequently conspicuous in the mind of a man of genius on his entrance into the world; which he insensibly loses in proportion as he advances in life, when enabled to appreciate men rather than things.

In 1728 he travelled through France and Italy. On his return he obtained a seat in parliament, where he distinguished himself on the side of opposition, although his father, who was one of the lords of the admiralty, voted always with Sir Robert Walpole.

In the struggles which at that time took place between the ministry and the opposition, he vehemently condemned the introduction of the excise, and the organization of a standing army. He supported the petition to the king for the dismissal of Sir Robert Walpole, who, upon his being displaced, used all his efforts to exclude Lyttleton from the privy council.

In this attempt, however, Sir Robert failed, and from that moment Lyttleton pursued with much energy his political career. In 1737, he became secretary to Frederick Prince of Wales, who adhered to the opposition party. In 1741 he married Miss Lucy Fortescue, sister to Lord Fortescue, by whom he had a son and two daughters. This amiable lady died in 1747, and Mr. Lyttleton throwing a crape over his lyre, wrote a beautiful monody to her memory. On the change of ministry in 1744, by the resignation of Sir Robert Walpole, he was

appointed one of the lords of the treasury. In 1749 he took for his second wife the daughter of Sir Robert Rich. Having in his younger years, as he acknowledges, been led into scepticism, he published his observations on the conversion of St. Paul, a work of infinite value. In 1751 he succeeded to the title of baronet, by the death of his father, and in 1754 he was made cofferer and privy counsellor. Some years afterwards, a new reign producing a new administration, he was raised to the peerage, and in a great measure retired from the intrigues and dissensions of politics.

But the labours of the statesman did not prevent Lyttleton from devoting his time to literary pursuits; while on his travels he wrote two epistles in verse, one to Dr. Ayscough, the other to Mr. Pope. On his return to London he consecrated his muse to love, and wrote only on amatory subjects. After the death of his first wife, whom he had the misfortune to lose in child-birth, his lyre assumed a more plaintive and melancholy tone.

In the year 1755, Lyttleton published his *Dialogues of the Dead*, one of his best productions in prose, and in 1764, his *History of the Reign of Henry II.* made its appearance.

It was upon this occasion that Doctor Johnson notices the ambitious exactness of Lyttleton in regard to punctuation. So solicitous was he to render his history perfect in that respect, that many of the sheets were reprinted four and five times. This first edition of this work cost the author one thousand guineas. Notwithstanding all his anxiety in point of precision, the third edition of his book, which he printed in three volumes, in 1761, presented to the literary world, what it had

LYTTLETON.

[ENGLAND.

never before beheld, an errata of nineteen pages of commas and of points.

His lordship died the death of a Christian on the 12th of August, 1773, at the age of 64.





MAHOMET.

## MAHOMET.

MOHAMMED ABOULCASSEM ABDALLAH, by his sectaries called only *Al-Nabi*, or the prophet, and by the christians Mahomet, was born in Arabia, in the year 560. He was of the tribe of the Koreïshites, the noblest among the Arabs, and of the family of Hashem, prince of that tribe, and of the city of Mecca, and hereditary keeper of the *Caaba*, or holy house, a temple in that city, the object of veneration to all the idolatrous inhabitants of Arabia. He lost his father Abdallah, and his mother, Arminia, in his youth. Abdal Motaleb, his grandfather, a rich man, and generally esteemed, took care of him in his infancy, and at his death gave him in charge to his son. This recommendation did not prevent the orphan from being excluded by his uncles from the inheritance of his grandfather. However, Abutaleb always behaved to him with a great deal of kindness, bred him up to commerce, which he carried on himself, took him with him in his voyages, and, at the age of five and twenty, placed him as an agent with Khadija, a noble and rich widow, who, three years after, rewarded his care and fidelity by marrying him. By this alliance Mahomet was re-established in the rank which his ancestors had enjoyed.

It was not until his fortieth year that he assumed the title of Prophet. No doubt it was to prepare the minds of the people, that every year he spent the month of Ramadan in solitude and retirement, in a cave at mount *Héra*, at some distance from Mecca. His first

proselytes were those, who having habitually been witnesses of his failings, must have been more difficult to persuade; Khadija his wife, Zeid his slave, Ali, the son of Abutaleb his relation and ward, and Abubekir his friend. Converted by him, ten of the principal inhabitants of Mecca renounced idolatry, and pronounced their profession of the faith: *There is but one God, and Mahomet is his Prophet.* Three years were silently employed in these first conversions. The fourth year, Mahomet imagined he might publicly announce his mission; he invited the children and descendants of Abdal Motaleb to a feast; forty of them came, Mahomet declared to them that he was sent by God to restore Arabia to the true worship, and to put down idolatry; and asked them which of them would become his companion and lieutenant. They all remained silent. Ali alone, then about fourteen years old, offered himself with enthusiasm, and Mahomet seriously ordered his guests to pay obedience in future to this child as to himself. He then began to preach in public. The Koreïshites used every effort to oppose the progress of this new religion; the prophet was obliged to hide himself, and an hundred of his most zealous proselytes were obliged to take refuge in Ethiopia. The tenth year of his mission, Mahomet lost almost at the same time, Abutaleb, his uncle and protector, and Khadija his wife. Three years afterwards the Koreïshites, thinking him unsupported, redoubled their persecution, and even formed the project of getting quit of him. He was obliged to fly from Mecca with Abubekir, and they encountered the greatest dangers; they, however, arrived safe at Medina, the principal inhabitants of which had embraced the religion of the prophet, and

had bound themselves to him secretly by an oath the year before. Mahomet had ordered his partizans to retire to this city. He was received as a sovereign with transports of joy, and built a house and a mosque. It is from this epoch that the Mahometans date their era; it is called the *Hegira*, from an Arabic word, which means *flight*, and corresponds with the year 622 of the christian era.

Mahomet, now become a sovereign, declared war against all those who denied the truth of his mission. The Koreïshites were particularly the objects of his hatred; he overcame them the following year at Bedra, but afterwards he was beaten at Ohud, where he was wounded, and near losing his life, and obliged to retire to Medina, and even to surround that city with a ditch for its defence. The divisions which took place among his enemies saved him; they raised the siege, retired with precipitation, and offered to make a truce with the prophet, who employed the succeeding years in reducing the Jewish tribes, which were very powerful and numerous in Arabia.

The sixth year of the Hegira Mahomet undertook the pilgrimage to Mecca. The Koreïshites marched to meet him, to prevent him from entering the city. The prophet had recourse to negociation, and concluded a truce with them for ten years, which confirmed to him the liberty of visiting the Caaba, the following year, for three days; he availed himself of this, and after having performed the usual sacrifices, he departed from the city the fourth day, leaving the people edified by his devotion. At length, in the year 630, the eighth year of the Hegira, Amrou, who afterwards conquered Egypt, and Khaled, who possessed himself of Syria, having been

both converted, Mahomet accused the Koreishites of having broken the truce, marched against Mecca, invested it, and took it without almost any resistance. He pardoned the Koreishites, destroyed the idols with which the Caaba was filled, and forbade any infidel ever to enter the territory of the Holy City. This conquest was followed by the submission of all Arabia; and 140,000 mussulmen accompanied him two years afterwards, when he returned to Mecca on his last pilgrimage, which the Mahometans call the pilgrimage of the *Adieu*. It is in remembrance of this, that every mussulman, whose health and means permit, ought at least once in his life go to Mecca, and perform all the ceremonies which were then performed by the prophet.

Mahomet returned to Medina, and his health soon after began to decline. He had always felt the effects of the poison which had been given him by a Jew, about three years before, but they were then renewed with more violence. The prophet beheld with firmness his last moments draw near; and died at the age of sixty-three, in the year 632, having supported his character to the last. He was buried at Medina, on the very spot where he died; and this city is reputed holy, because it contains the tomb of the prophet. Almost all his sectaries perform the pilgrimage to Medina, and consider it as a completion necessary to that of Mecca.

Mahomet had no other wife but Khadija, during her life time; after her death, he had as many as eleven legitimate ones: Aiesha, daughter of Abubekis, was the one he most loved, and for a long time after the death of her husband, she was styled *the mother of the believers*. Mahomet had no children by his eleven wives; he had had eight by Khadija, but Fatima, whom he had given in marriage to Ali, was the only one who survived him.

Mahomet is, perhaps, the most extraordinary man that ever appeared on earth: without any tincture of literature, and even, according to some authors, without ever being able to read or write, he founded a religion which has rapidly extended itself, and prevails over a great part of the globe; and on which he has laid the foundation of a powerful empire. Without attempting to draw his character—"a difficult enterprize," (says Gibbon) "the success of which would be uncertain even to a man who had lived in intimacy with the prophet," we may assert, that ambition was the main-spring of all his actions, that his plans experienced variations according to circumstances, and became more extensive in proportion as those became more favourable. We may imagine that he at first only proposed to himself to regain the authority which his grandfather Hashem had enjoyed in his tribe, and in Mecca; but as all those who boasted of the same origin, might have set up the same claims, Mahomet thought himself obliged to assume a title which set him above them, and that of a messenger from God, appeared to him the easiest to support. He, therefore, loudly proclaimed, that God had chosen him to bring back his countrymen to the true worship, as professed by Abraham and his son Ishmael, from whom the Arabs boast their descent; and he attacked idolatry without reserve, probably because it was already brought into discredit in Arabia, by the example and intercourse with the Jews and Christians; to conciliate these as much as possible, he acknowledged Moses and Jesus Christ as two prophets; but pretended that they were only his forerunners, that as for him, he was the last of those whom God was to send on earth to re-establish religion

in its primitive purity, which had been disfigured by the superstitions which had crept into Judaism and Christianity. He reduced his profession of faith to these two points. There is but one God, and Mahomet is his prophet; to these he added ceremonies and precepts borrowed from the Jews, Christians, and even from the heathens. Such as the five daily prayers and the purifications which precede them; alms of the tenth part of their revenue, the fast of Ramadan, abstinence from certain meats, the pilgrimage to Mecca. With respect to circumcision it was so universally practised in Arabia from time immemorial, that the prophet thought it unnecessary to make it an éxpress commandment in the Koran, a book which contains at once the religious dogmas, rules of discipline, and the civil and criminal laws of his followers.

Although Mahomet had pretended that the angel Gabriel had brought him from heaven a copy of this sacred book, he was too prudent to publish it entire as a work; the chapters and verses of which it is composed appeared only in succession in fragments, and according to the inclination of the prophet. Circumstances produced revelations and precepts. Thus the prohibition of wine and of games of chance was made in the first year of the Hegira, on account of some disputes which had arisen among the chiefs and the soldiery; that the doctrine of predestination was established, in order to raise the spirits of his followers, which were cast down by his defeat at Ohud; that the pilgrimage to Mecca was ordained, as likewise the obligation of turning the face, whilst at prayer towards that part of the horizon in the direction of which the Caaba is situated. Mahomet had at first settled it, that they should turn

towards the side of Jerusalem; but he changed this custom after the conquest of Mecca, whether to conciliate the minds of his countrymen, or that he had given up all hopes of converting the Jews to his religion.

To avoid the contradictions inevitable in a work composed in the manner above-mentioned, it was settled that every passage already known, was capable of being modified, and even annulled by those which should be afterwards published; and yet, in spite of this precaution, Mahomet was obliged to bring in the angel Gabriel to declare, that God had set him above the law, which prescribed to mussulmen to be content with four legitimate wives. The dogmas of the resurrection, of paradise, and hell, are also contained in the Koran. We find in many books, the description of delights destined for the reception of mussulmen after death, and of the pleasures which await them. Some Mahometan doctors pretend that these pleasures are but allegorical and figurative; they also say, that the famous journey of the prophet to Jerusalem, and from thence to the throne of God, was only the effect of an extasy; but the entire mass of believers, and most of the doctors are persuaded, that Mahomet performed this journey corporeally, and believe in that voluptuousness, which is promised them in another world.

The different parts of the Koran were collected by the disciples of the prophet, by degrees as they came from his mouth: they inscribed them on palm leaves, or on flat bones, and deposited them, without any regard to order, in a chest, the care of which was intrusted to one of his wives. Two years after the death of the prophet, Abubekir, who succeeded to his authority, by the name of Caliph or Vicar, collected all these fragments, and

formed them into a work; this was again revised by Othman, the third caliph, who had been secretary to Mahomet. This scripture, so boasted of by the Arabs, is nothing but a confused miscellany of fables, precepts, exclamations, and vain declamations. Some few passages of an elevated style, which now and then are found in it, do not requite those who read the translations of it, for the tediousness of the rest of the book.

Mahomet become sovereign of Medina, forbade all kind of controversy among his followers, and ordered them to use the sword only for the conversion of the infidels; he proclaimed that they who should die in the field of battle on account of religion, should immediately be admitted into paradise. By this promise, and these daily preachings he excited so lively an enthusiasm in the naturally heated minds of the Arabs, that from the first years of his residence at Medina, he was considered by his followers as an emanation from the Deity, that the smallest delay in the execution of his mandates was reckoned an impiety, and under his banners they were afraid of no danger. Abubekir, and Omar who succeeded him, knew how to avail themselves of this passive obedience, which was still further strengthened by the doctrine of fatalism. Availing themselves of the weakness of the Romans and Persians, and the religious and political troubles by which they were divided, they extended their power and the religion of the prophet; and in less than twelve years after his death the Arabs had conquered Mesopotamia, Syria, Palestine, Egypt, and all Persia. The dissensions and civil wars which took place between Ali and his descendants, and the Omniades, or descendants of Othman, did not weaken this spirit of conquest and proselytism; for one hundred

years after this epoch, the mussulmen, masters of Africa, of Spain, of the South of France, and the principal islands of the Mediterranean, threatened to enslave all Europe, and would have conquered it, but for the bravery of Charles Martel, who put a stop to their victories by the destruction of their army, between Tours and Poitiers, in the year 732.

We have not thought it necessary in this article, to treat of either the fits of epilepsy, to which it is said Mahomet was subject, and which he pretended were extacies, nor of the pigeon which he had accustomed to eat out of his ear; because these appear to have been fictions. Perhaps the case is the same with the Nestorian monk Sergius or Boheira, who, according to Christian historians, greatly assisted the prophet in composing the Koran; we may judge of the degree of probability due to this allegation, from the manner in which it is written and digested.

It is, however, generally believed that the Koran of this impostor contains a good deal of practical morality, drawn from the Scriptures, but blended with extravagant tales and blasphemous doctrines. The best printed edition is that of Marracci, in Arabic and Latin, Padua, 2 vols. fol. 1698. It has been well translated by Sale, in 2 vols. 4to. and 2 vols. 8vo. and in French, by Du-Ryer and Savary.







MARGARET of ANJOU

## MARGARET OF ANJOU.

WHEN Henry VI. king of England, a prince of a weak character and narrow mind, had attained his twenty-third year, Cardinal Winchester and the Duke of Gloucester, the one the grand uncle, and the other uncle of the young monarch, and who until then had governed under his name, considered of choosing a wife for him; the party of the cardinal prevailed on this occasion, and Henry married, in 1443, Margaret of Anjou, daughter of René, king of Naples and Sicily, Count of Provence. This princess, of singular beauty joined a manly courage, and an understanding at once lively and solid; and it was hoped that her good qualities would make up for those in which the young prince was deficient.

The new queen connected herself closely with the party which had called her to the throne: she was an enemy to the Duke of Gloucester, and even was suspected of having consented to the murder of that prince, in 1447.

One of the secret conditions on the marriage of Margaret had been, that Charles of Anjou, her uncle, should be restored to the possession of the Comté de Maine, of which the English were masters. This clause was put into execution immediately after the death of the Duke of Gloucester; and by the facility which it afforded the French of penetrating into Normandy, occasioned the loss of that province two years afterwards. The officers

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and soldiers who had been employed to defend it returned to England, dissatisfied at not having received assistance. They attributed to the weakness of the king and the ascendancy which Margaret exercised in his name, the loss of Normandy; and the majority of their countrymen adopted this opinion.

This disposition of the minds of the people recalled the remembrance of the usurpation of the house of Lancaster, from which Henry VI. was descended, and awakened the remembrance of the incontestible right which Richard, Duke of Gloucester, had to the crown. It induced the Commons to bring an accusation of treason against the Duke of Suffolk, Margaret's favourite minister, who had been the negociator of her marriage. The king referred the complaint to his council, and banished Suffolk for some time; but the duke was assassinated before he left England, and his death remained unrevenged.

The rebellion which broke out in 1450 terrified the council who governed under the name of Henry VI. and gave him some suspicions of the Duke of York; yet in 1454 he was created lieutenant of the kingdom, at a time when the weakness of the king's mind was increased by the effects of sickness.

The year following, Henry's health being established, he revoked the powers given to the Duke of York, who had recourse to arms, defeated the king's troops, made himself prisoner, and obliged him to re-invest him with authority. It was then that the famous wars of the Red and White Rose began; the former was the badge of the house of Lancaster, the latter that of the partisans of the house of York.

In 1456, Margaret, taking advantage of the duke's

absence, brought the king to the House of Peers. He there again annulled the powers with which the Duke of York had been invested, and the war was again kindled with various success. At length, in 1460, the Lancastrians were beaten at Northampton, by the famous Earl of Warwick, and Henry VI. was again made prisoner. Margaret took shelter in the north of England with her son, who was as yet a child. Her address, the enthusiasm which she knew how to inspire, and the compassion which her misfortunes excited, gained over to her party all the nobility of that country. She soon saw herself at the head of an army of twenty thousand men. The Duke of York marched against her with only five thousand, and found himself surrounded at Wakefield. His army was cut to pieces; he was killed in the action, and Margaret caused his head, crowned with paper, to be placed on the gates of York.

In 1461, she defeated the Earl of Warwick at the second battle of St. Alban's, and released Henry VI. her husband; but she tarnished the splendour of her victory by following it up with bloody executions. Meantime Edward, eldest son of the Duke of York, was proclaimed king, in London, by the name of Edward IV. notwithstanding the defeat of his party; and Margaret was obliged to retire to the north of England. The licentiousness which she was obliged to allow among her troops, induced a number of soldiers to enlist under her banners: in a little time she found herself at the head of sixty thousand men; but this army was annihilated at the battle of Towton. Margaret and her husband having sheltered themselves in Scotland, Edward assembled a parliament, caused his right to the crown to be acknowledged, and proscribed Henry VI.

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his wife, the prince their son, and all the partisans of the house of Lancaster.

The indefatigable Margaret, unable to obtain any assistance in Scotland, went to France; and promising Lewis XI. to surrender Calais to him, she obtained a body of twenty thousand men, who were joined by some Scotch, and those who still adhered to her party in England. This army was defeated, in 1464, at Hexham. Margaret forsaken, fled with her son into a forest, where she was stopped by some robbers, who took from her her diamonds and every thing she had with her of value. The division of the booty excited a quarrel among them, of which the queen took advantage, and escaped with her son into the thickest part of the forest; where, nearly fainting with fatigue, she met another robber advancing sword in hand. She immediately advanced towards him, and presenting to him the prince, whom she held in her arms, "I entrust to you," said she, "the son of your king." The robber, astonished and affected, devoted himself from that moment to her service, procured for her the means of concealing herself, and enabled her to leave England and take refuge in Flanders. Henry VI. less fortunate, was delivered up to Edward IV. and imprisoned in the Tower of London.

Some time afterwards the marriage of Edward with Elizabeth Gray, and the favour he shewed to the relatives of his wife, excited the discontent of the Earl of Warwick and the Duke of Clarence, his son-in-law, Edward's brother. They rebelled in 1470; but finding themselves abandoned, they took refuge in France, where they were kindly received by Lewis XI. He formed between them and Margaret a treaty of union,

by which the Earl bound himself to make every effort to re-establish Henry VI. on the throne.

Warwick, accompanied by the Duke of Clarence, landed that same year in England, and made himself master of it in eleven days. Edward IV. fled to Holland. Henry VI. agreeably to treaty, was restored to the throne, and the regency was entrusted to the Earl of Warwick and the Duke of Clarence; but six months afterwards, by the aid of some succours furnished by Charles le Temeraire, Duke of Burgundy, Edward appeared again in England, re-entered London, and again made himself master of the unfortunate Henry VI. The Earl of Warwick, eager to conquer before the arrival of the re-inforcements which Margaret was to bring from France, gave battle to Edward near Barnet; but being betrayed by the Duke of Clarence, he was defeated, perished in the battle, and his army dispersed,

The same day, Margaret and her son, aged eighteen, landed at Weymouth, the news of the defeat and death of Warwick damped her courage for the first time. It however, revived when she saw the remains of her party rally round her; but Edward pursued them with activity, and annihilated her army at the battle of Tewkesbury. Margaret and her son were made prisoners: the young prince was stabbed almost in her presence, by the brothers of Edward. His unfortunate mother was confined in the Tower of London, where in a few days afterwards Henry VI. her husband, was assassinated.

Margaret was set at liberty four years afterwards by the treaty of Pecquigny. Lewis XI. paid fifty thousand crowns for her ransom. She passed the remainder of her agitated life in retirement, and died in 1482.

Although this princess may be accused of having

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shewn much of the barbarity and ferocity of the age in which she lived, and of a want of moderation in prosperity, the firmness she displayed in her misfortunes will ever be a subject worthy of admiration.





MARLBOROUGH

## DUKE OF MARLBOROUGH.

JOHN CHURCHILL, Duke of Marlborough, so celebrated in the English annals, was the son of Sir Winston Churchill, and born at Ashe, in Devonshire, in 1650. He received but an indifferent education; for his father took him to court at the age of twelve years, where he became page to the Duke of York, and in 1666 he obtained a pair of colours in the Guards.

His first service was at Tangier; and at his return he became the favourite of the Duchess of Cleveland, who gave him five thousand pounds, with which he purchased an annuity for life. He served afterwards under the great Turenne, who was so pleased with his person and bravery, as to call him the handsome Englishman. He distinguished himself so gallantly at the siege of Maestricht, that the King of France publicly thanked him at the head of the regiment. On his return to England he was made lieutenant-colonel, gentleman of the bedchamber, and master of the robes to the Duke of York. He attended that prince to Holland and Scotland; and about this time married Miss Jennings, maid of honour to Princess, afterwards Queen Anne.

In 1682, he was shipwrecked with the Duke of York in their passage to Scotland; on which occasion his royal highness expressed the utmost anxiety to save his favourite. The same year he was made a peer, by the title of Baron Eymouth, in Scotland; and when James came to the crown, he was sent to France to notify the

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event. In 1685 he was created Lord Churchill, of Sandridge. The same year he suppressed Monmouth's rebellion, and took him prisoner. He continued to serve King James with great fidelity till the arrival of the Prince of Orange, and then left him; for which he has been stigmatized by several writers, and, perhaps, unjustly, with base ingratitude. His own apology was, a regard for the religion and constitution of his country.

King William created him Earl of Marlborough in 1689, appointed him commander in chief of the English army in the Low Countries. He next served in Ireland, and reduced Cork, with other strong places. But in 1692, he was suddenly dismissed from his employments and committed to the Tower; from whence, however, he was soon released. The cause of this disgrace has never been clearly explained. After the death of Queen Mary, he was restored to favour: and at the close of that reign he had the command of the English forces in Holland, and was appointed ambassador extraordinary to the States, who chose him captain-general of their forces.

On the commencement of Queen Anne's reign he recommended a war with France and Spain, which advice was adopted. In the first campaign of 1702 he took a number of strong towns, particularly Liege. The following year, upon his return to England, he received the thanks of both houses, and was honoured with a dukedom by the queen. In 1704 he joined Prince Eugene, with whom he fought the French and Bavarians at Hockstadt, and obtained a complete victory, taking Marshal Tallard prisoner, with many other officers of rank, whom he brought to England. He again received the thanks of parliament, and the grant of the manor of Woodstock, with the hundred of Wotton.

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May 12, 1706, he fought the famous battle of Ramillies; in which his life was frequently in the most imminent danger, a cannon shot taking off the head of Colonel Bingley as he was assisting the Duke to remount. He arrived in England in November, and received fresh honours and grants from the Queen and Parliament. A bill was passed to settle his titles upon the male and female issue of his daughters; and Blenheim House was ordered to be built, to perpetuate his gallant actions.

The following campaign presented nothing worth recording; but the ensuing one was pushed with such vigour, that the French king was glad to enter into a negotiation for peace, which, however, had no effect. In 1709 he defeated Marshal Villars at Malplaquet; for which victory a general thanksgiving was solemnized. In 1711, he returned to England, having added considerably to his laurels; but soon after was dismissed from his employments. To add to this unjust treatment, his character was vilified by the writers of the day, and a prosecution was commenced against him for applying the public money to his private purposes. It must however be admitted, that his avarice was excessive. Stung at this ingratitude, he went into voluntary banishment, accompanied by his duchess, and remained abroad until 1714, when he landed at Dover, amidst the acclamations of the people. Queen Anne was just dead, and her successor restored the Duke to his military appointments; but his infirmities increasing, he retired from public employment, and died at Windsor Lodge, having survived his intellectual faculties, June 16, 1722. His remains were interred with great pomp in Westminster Abbey.

Though the Duke of Marlborough was appointed

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commander in chief of the forces by George the First, he never had his confidence; and had so little weight with him, that when he wished only to appoint a friend to an ensigny, he used to direct Mr. Pulteney, then secretary at war, to go to the king in his name. The king, when he was elector of Hanover, was displeased with him for drawing down, every campaign, such large bodies of German troops to his own army in Flanders, that the army of the empire upon the Rhine was always obliged to act upon the defensive.





MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS

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## MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS.

MARY Queen of Scotland, daughter of James V. was born in the royal palace of Linlithgow, on the 8th of December, 1542. Her mother was Mary, the eldest daughter of Claude, Duke of Guise, and widow of Louis, Duke of Longueville. Her father dying a few days after her birth, she scarcely existed before she was hailed queen.

At an early age Mary was conveyed to France, where she received her education in the court of Henry II. She soon acquired a knowledge of the Latin tongue, and became a proficient in the French, Italian, and Spanish languages. She walked, danced, and rode with uncommon grace, and was qualified by nature as well as art to attain to distinction in painting, poetry, and music.

Whilst Mary resided in the court of Henry II. her personal charms made a deep impression on the mind of the Dauphin. It was in vain that the constable Montmorency opposed their marriage with all his influence. The importance of her kingdom to France, and the power of her uncles, the Princes of Lorraine, were more than sufficient to counteract his intrigues, and the Dauphin obtained the most beautiful princess in Christendom.

Though this alliance placed the Queen of Scotland in the most conspicuous point of view, it may be considered as having accidentally laid the foundation of the greatest

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part of her future misfortunes. Elizabeth, who swayed the English sceptre, had been declared illegitimate by an act of parliament. Mary being the next heir in regular succession to the throne of England, if Elizabeth should die without lawful issue, was induced upon her marriage to the Dauphin, by the persuasions of her uncles, and by the authority of the French king, and perhaps from motives of ambition to assume the titles and arms of the Queen of England and Ireland. These, indeed, she forebore as soon as she became her own mistress; but the having at all assumed them was an offence which Elizabeth never forgave, and which rankling on her bosom, made her many years afterwards pursue the unhappy Queen of Scots to the block.

Henry II. dying soon after the marriage of the Dauphin and Mary, they ascended the throne of France. In that elevated station she did not fail to distinguish herself. But this scene of successful grandeur and unmixed felicity was of short duration. Her husband Francis died, unexpectedly, after a short reign of sixteen months. Sensibly affected at this event, Mary was invited to return to her own kingdom, and she tried to reconcile herself to her fate.

But a queen, young, beautiful, and accomplished, an ancient and hereditary kingdom, and the expectation of a mightier inheritance, were objects to excite the love and ambition of the most illustrious personages. Mary, who kept her eye steadily fixed on the English succession, rejected every offer of a foreign alliance; and swayed at first by prudential motives, and afterwards by love the most excessive, she gave her hand to Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley, the son of the Earl of Lenox. Nature had indeed been lavish to him of her kindness;

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but her bounty extended not to his mind. His understanding was narrow, his ambition excessive, and his obstinacy inflexible. He neither knew how to enjoy his prosperity nor how to ensure it. On the 29th of July, 1565, this ill-fated pair were married, and though the queen gave her husband every possible evidence of the most extravagant affection, and even infringed the principles of the constitution to confer upon him the title of king, he soon began to clamour for more power. He had not been married seven months when he entered into a conspiracy to deprive Mary of the government, and seat himself on her throne. With this view he headed a band of factious nobles, who entered her chamber at night, and though she was then far advanced in her pregnancy, murdered her secretary in her presence. Such an outrage, together with his infidelity and frequent amours, could not fail to alienate the affection of a high spirited woman; the consequence was, that a plot was soon after formed for his destruction; and on the 10th of February, 1567, the house in which he then resided was early in the morning blown up with gunpowder, and his dead naked body, without any marks of violence, was found in an adjoining field.

Such a daring and atrocious murder filled every mind with astonishment. The queen was overwhelmed with grief, and conscious of her own innocence, took every method in her power to discover the regicides. Papers were posted on the most conspicuous places in Edinburgh accusing the Earl of Bothwell of the crime, and he was ordered on his trial. Through the management of the Earl of Morton and others, who were afterwards found to have been partners in his guilt, Bothwell was acquitted of all knowledge of the king's murder, and

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what is absolutely astonishing, this flagitious man procured, by means of the same treacherous friends, a paper signed by the majority of the nobles, recommending him as a fit husband for the queen.

Armed with this instrument of mischief, Bothwell soon after secured the person of his sovereign and carried her prisoner to his castle at Dunbar, where she was closely confined for twelve days. Having, as there is reason to believe, actually suffered violence on her person, perceiving no appearance of a rescue, and being shewn the infamous bond of the nobles, Mary promised to receive her ravisher for her husband, as, in her opinion, the only refuge for her injured honour; and on the 15th of May, 1567, this marriage, thus inauspiciously contracted, was duly solemnized. This union, however, proved the signal for revolt. Bothwell was justly and universally detested; rebellion ensued; and upon the faith of promises the most solemn, the unhappy queen delivered herself into the hands of her rebels, and persuaded her husband to fly from the danger which, in her apprehension, threatened his life. But these promises were instantly violated, and after insulting their sovereign in the cruelest manner, the faithless nobles hurried her as a prisoner to a castle, where she was treated with every possible mark of indignity.

In this distress the queen's fortitude and presence of mind did not forsake her; she contrived to make her escape from her prison at the head of 6000 combatants. This army, however, was defeated. In opposition to the advice and entreaties of all her friends, she hastily formed the resolution of taking *refuge in England*.

Elizabeth, who had not yet forgotten her assumption

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of the title and arms of Queen of England, was now taught to dread her talents and to be envious of her charms. She, therefore, under various pretences, and in violation of public faith, kept her a close prisoner for nineteen years, and encouraged her rebellious subjects to accuse her publicly of the murder of her husband. Under this distress Mary preserved the magnanimity of a queen, and practised the duties of a Christian. Her sufferings and her dignified affability having gained her great popularity in England, especially among the Roman Catholics, Elizabeth, afraid of her intrigues, determined to cut her off. With this view she prevailed on her servile parliament to pass an act which might make Mary answerable for the crimes of her partisans; and upon that flagitious statute she was tried as a traitor concerned in the conspiracy of Babington, and condemned to suffer death. The fair heroine received her ill-fortune with great composure, and having prepared herself with religious solemnity for her execution, was beheaded in the castle of Fotheringay, on the 8th of February, 1587, in the forty-fifth year of her age.

Our limits will not permit us to enter into the controversy relative to the general character of this unfortunate queen. By one party she is painted with more virtues and fewer defects than almost any other woman of the age in which she lived. By another she is represented as guilty of the grossest crimes which a woman can commit—adultery and the murder of her husband. By all it is confessed, that previous to her connection with the Earl of Bothwell, her life as a Christian was exemplary, and her administration as a queen equitable and mild; and it has never been

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denied that she bore her tedious sufferings with such resignation and fortitude as are seldom found united with conscious guilt.





M. DE MEDICIS.

*Richard Smith*

## MARIE DE MEDICIS.

THIS Princess, the daughter of the grand duke of Tuscany, Francis II. was born at Florence, in the year 1579. Henry IV. of France married her in 1601, after the dissolution of his marriage with Margaret de Valois, and caused her to be crowned at Saint Denis, the 13th of May, 1610. On the following day he was assassinated.. It was his intention, it appears, to have named her regent upon his departure, to carry into effect, at the head of his army, the vast project which he had long previously meditated. Marie de Medicis has long been suspected, with several others, of assisting in the horrible attack which deprived France of the best of kings; but these odious conjectures, collected without due reflection, by *Mezerai*, are entirely divested of proof. It is likewise pretended that she consoled herself in the arms of *d'Epernon* and *Concini* for the infidelities of her husband; an imputation which, however, appears no better founded than the former calumny. Certain it is, that Henry IV. was unhappy on this occasion; that she filled his days with bitterness and disgust by her proud and jealous temper, by continual bickerings and dissensions, and in a particular manner by the undisguised protection which she afforded to the domestic enemies of that prince.

After the death of the king, the Duke d'Epernon, at the head of the regiment of the French guards, compelled the Parliament to assume to itself the liberty of disposing of the regency, and of giving it to the queen-mother. If any thing could have compensated the

nation for the loss of one of its choicest prerogatives, it would have been the establishment of a government sufficiently vigorous and stable to maintain the good order which had been established by Henry IV. in every department of the administration. But Marie de Medicis was inadequate to such a trust. Under her regency every thing was changed ; her two favourites, *Concini* became, *Marechal d' Ancre* without having drawn his sword, and first Minister without any knowledge of the laws of the kingdom, and his wife *La Galegani* assumed the authority. *Sully* was dismissed, *Villeroi* and *Jeannin* soon afterwards followed. In their place the pope's nuncio, the Spanish ambassador, *le pere Cotton* took part in the direction of affairs. In a little time the savings of Henry IV. were dissipated in frivolous profusion, his armies broken up, his projects abandoned. France lost the consequence which she formerly enjoyed abroad, and was distracted at home, by the factions of the protestants, the nobles, and the princes of the blood. The states general, assembled in 1614, were not able to remedy the evil. Instead of being occupied with the means of delivering the kingdom from the state of confusion in which it was plunged, they were busied in discussing the question whether the *spiritual* or *temporal* powers ought to dispose of the Throne. The third estate was desirous that a fundamental law should preserve the negative : this was opposed by the nobility and the clergy.

The disastrous fate of the *Marechal d' Ancre* is well known. He was assassinated at the Louvre in the year 1617, by order of Louis XIII. and his wife condemned to be burnt for sorcery by the Parliament of

Paris. It was this female, who, during the progress of this ridiculous and barbarous proceeding, replied to the counsellor *Coutin*, "My witchcraft is only the ascendancy which strong minds possess over those which are weak."

After this catastrophe Marie de Medicis, at one moment, taking up arms against the king, her son, and waging war against him; at another reconciled to him, and placing him at the head of the council, maintained her credit during a period of sixteen years against the power of the favourites of Louis XIII. But she at length failed, by opposing the ambition of one of her own creatures. Richelieu, introduced by herself into the council, raised by her means to extraordinary honours, affected no longer to be dependant upon his benefactress. Indignant at his ingratitude, she resolved upon his destruction, which he anticipated. Marie de Medicis was arrested by the king's order, and detained a prisoner in the castle of Compègne. She escaped from thence a little time after, retired to Brussels, and never re-entered France. It was from the bosom of this retreat, that the widow of Henry the Great, the mother of the king of France, addressed a request to parliament, which is still preserved, and began thus: "*Supplée Marie, Reine de France et de Navarre, disant que depuis le 23 Février, 1631, elle auroit été prisonniere au château de Compiègne sans être ni accusée ni soupçonnée.*" She died at Cologne in 1642, almost in a state of indigence.

Marie de Medicis, like many of her sex, was a woman of a weak understanding, with strong passions; vanity rendered her ambitious, and her ambition, analagous to her temper, was violent, jealous and domineering.

MARIE DE MEDICIS. [FRANCE.

Confident, through want of information ; revengeful through obstinacy ; more desirous of reputation than of power, she only aspired to authority to enjoy the pleasure of submission. When we attentively read the history of this princess we are almost tempted to pardon in Richelieu the ingratitude with which he repaid her beneficence.

This princess brought from Florence a taste for the fine arts. Paris is indebted to her for the palace of the Luxemburg, the promenade, called *Cours de la reine*, and the fine aqueduct of Arcueil.





LADY WILMONTAGU.

*W. & A. Nodding sculp.*

## LADY MONTAGUE.

THIS celebrated lady was the daughter of Evelyn Pierrepont, earl, and afterwards duke, of Kingston. She was born at Throesby in Nottinghamshire. She received a very liberal education, and was taught the elements of the Greek and Latin languages. In 1712, she married Edward Wortley Montague, Esq. who distinguished himself as an able and upright senator in parliament, and was the intimate friend and correspondent of Addison.

In 1716, Mr. Montague was appointed ambassador to the court of Constantinople, whither he was accompanied by his lady. During this embassy she wrote a very elegant and interesting description of Constantinople to her friends, and laid the foundation of her future fame. Having obtained information of a practice among the villagers of engrafting or inoculating for the small pox, she caused this method to be applied to her own son, and by this means was the instrument of introducing inoculation into this part of Europe. Nor is it a matter divested of some singularity, that a beautiful woman of thirty, struggling against prejudices, the ignorance of physicians, and of religious superstition, should have been able to render so important a service to humanity.

On her return to England, with her husband, in 1718, Lady Mary settled at Twickenham, where she maintained an intimacy with Mr. Pope, who, for a time, was charmed with her genius and accomplishments. This

LADY MONTAGUE. [ENGLAND

friendship was afterwards broken, and the poet scrupled not to write the basest satires against her talents and reputation, which satires, when charged with, he had the meanness to deny. In 1739, on account of her health, she went abroad, and settled at Brescia in the Venetian territories, where she remained till 1761, when she visited England. She died in 1762, aged 73.

The works of Lady Montague consist of poems and letters, a genuine edition of which was published under the authority of the Marquis of Bute, in 1803. Her poems are written without effort, yet are not deficient in wit and harmony; but her letters are infinitely more pleasing and instructive. So well were her letters received on their appearance, as to pass through several impressions, and to be translated into many languages.





NELSON

*J. A. 1802*

ENGRAVED BY J. A. 1802

## LORD NELSON.

THIS celebrated character, whose exploits have reflected so much glory on the British nation, was the son of the Rev. Edmund Nelson, and was born at Burnham Thorpe, in Norfolk, in the year 1758. He received his education at the school at North Walsham, and at an early age discovered a strong predilection for the naval profession, and went on board the *Raisable*, of sixty-four guns, commanded by his mother's brother, Captain Maurice Suckling.

In the month of April, 1773, the enterprising spirit of Horatio Nelson manifesting itself, he went in capacity of cockswain to Captain Lutwidge, in a voyage of discovery to the North Pole. Upon the return of the ships, in October, he was placed in the *Seahorse*, of twenty guns, Captain Farmer; and in April, 1777, he obtained the professional order of lieutenant, and received his commission the next day. On the eleventh of June, 1779, he rose to the rank of post captain, and during the nine years he had been in the service he not only became an able officer by his constant attention to every part of his duty, but he also laid the foundation of being a pilot of distinguished eminence.

The first ship to which he was appointed, after being made a post captain, was the *Hinchinbroke*. In the month of January, 1780, it was resolved on to reduce Fort Juan, in the gulf of Mexico, when Captain Nelson was made choice of to command the naval department, and that of the military was committed to Major Polson.

Here his usual intrepidity was exhibited, and his vigorous exertions were so extolled by Major Polson and General Dalling, that he was appointed to the *Janus*, at that time stationed at Jamaica. In 1781, he obtained the command of the *Albemarle*, and was employed during the ensuing winter in the north seas. In 1783, hostilities having previously ceased, the *Albemarle* was paid off, and he set out on a visit to France. In 1787, he married the widow of Doctor Nesbit, of the island of Nevis, and retired to the parsonage-house of Burnham Thorpe, given him by his father, where he lived for many years in domestic felicity.

On the breaking out of the war in 1793, he again came forward, and being appointed to the command of the *Ayamemnon*, of sixty-four guns, he became peculiarly conspicuous as a naval officer, under the orders of Lord Hood, who at that period was destined to command in the Mediterranean. Toulon, Bastia and Calvi, witnessed his gallant and intrepid deportment. At the siege of the latter he had the misfortune to lose the sight of his right eye. On the thirteenth and fourteenth of March, and the thirteenth of July, 1795, he again rendered himself pre-eminent in the actions which then took place with the French fleet. After various other active and important services during the preceding months, Sir Horatio Nelson, in April, 1793, hoisted his flag on board the *Captain*, of seventy-four guns, as rear-admiral of the Blue. On the fifteenth of April, in the same year, having shifted his flag from the *Captain* to the *Theseus*, he was detached with a small squadron to attack the town of Santa Cruz, in the island of Teneriffe; from which, not being able to attain the decisive object, he was induced to retreat. In this unfortunate

expedition, the brave Nelson lost his arm by a cannon shot.

But a more splendid scene of the life of our hero is now opening. On the thirteenth of April, 1798, he was detached by Earl St. Vincent's fleet, in pursuit of the French to the coast of Egypt, with twelve sail of the line and one frigate, while the enemy's fleet consisted of thirteen sail of the line and some frigates, protected by the batteries on shore, and several gun brigs. This memorable action commenced at sun set, and terminated gloriously for the honour of our hero and that of the British navy. Nine sail of the line fell into the hands of the conqueror, two were burnt, and two effected their escape. In the action Nelson received a wound on the head. From this moment Lord Nelson was regarded as the great defence of the empire, and the support of the national glory. It is to his gallantry and skill that we are indebted for the victory of Copenhagen, and the annihilation of that formidable northern confederacy which menaced the prosperity, the commerce, and even the very existence of the rest of Europe.

Passing over one of the most important and beneficial, although unsuccessful enterprises for which his life was distinguished, his pursuit of the combined fleets of France and Spain to the West Indies, we come to the concluding scene of this extraordinary man's naval career, which kindles emotions of admiration and regret, and at once excites both transport and extreme sorrow. Perhaps no action in point of splendour and magnanimity, can equal that which deprived this country of one of the greatest heroes it ever produced. The combined fleets of France and Spain being at length dis-

covered off Trafalgar, Lord Nelson prepared for the attack, and perceiving that by his skilful manœuvres he had reduced the enemy to the necessity of engaging him, he exclaimed in the presence of his officers, who surrounded him on the quarter deck, "Now they cannot escape us; I think we shall at least make sure of twenty of them." But, alas! amidst the inexpressible satisfaction and delight which a victory so splendid could not fail to inspire; it has left us to lament that it was purchased by the loss of a life so incomparably valuable.

His lordship's flag ship fell on board the *Redoubtable*, by which means he was exposed to the fire of the musquetry from the ships. The insignia of his grandeur and dignity, it is supposed, singled him out to the aims of the enemy, which in the issue were too fatally successful. His secretary was cut in two by his side by a chain shot. and soon after a ball grazed his lordship's shoulder, entered his left breast, and passed through his lungs. He lived about three hours after this tragical event, during which he displayed the same heroic magnanimity in the arms of death which had so incessantly distinguished him through the whole of his life. His last words were to Captain Hardy—"I know I am dying; I could have wished to breathe my last on British ground, but the will of God be done!" In a few moments he expired. His last signal will never be forgotten, "England expects every man to do his duty." In this manner died, in the forty-seventh year of his age, the greatest commander that perhaps ever adorned the British navy, leaving behind him a name dear to Great Britain, and an example of heroism which will inspire his companions in arms to emulate his virtues, that they too may live in the remembrance of a grateful posterity.

His singular plan of attack on this memorable occasion will long be the theme of eulogium. It was concerted with such consummate wisdom that it could not fail of success. But the talents of Lord Nelson were not wholly confined to the knowledge of naval tactics; for it is known that as a senator he was highly respectable, although he enjoyed few opportunities of coming forward in that capacity. When he did his speeches were heard by their lordships with respect, and the most profound attention. The few specimens we have of his abilities as a politician, afford no mean proof, that if he had devoted as much of his time to those studies as he did to his peculiar profession, he would have made a distinguished figure in the House of Peers.

His titles were Viscount Nelson, Duke of Bronte. The united parliament voted him a pension of three thousand pounds a year. The East India Company made him a present of one thousand eight hundred pounds. The Grand Senior gave him a diamond aigrette worth four thousand pounds. The Emperor of Russia gave him a diamond box worth two thousand five hundred pounds. The King of Naples made him a present to the amount, together with the Dukedom of Bronte and an estate, of three thousand per annum. Thus all Europe conspired to testify the estimation in which they held this distinguished hero; and the numerous monuments which have been, and which still are erecting to his memory throughout the British empire, will continue lasting evidences of the esteem in which he was held by his country.







*Portrait of the Duke of Orleans*

## DUKE OF ORLEANS.

IT is ever with some regret that we see enrolled among the number of illustrious personages those who, devoid of talents and of virtue, have been able only to acquire celebrity by guilt; especially when inheriting exalted rank, they rendered themselves particularly distinguished by the meanness of their sentiments, and the depravity of their conduct. It is, however, not an useless example, to present to the world a prince the victim of his immorality; and who, from the height of grandeur and of fortune, perished by his own misdeeds.

Louis Joseph Philip d'Orleans, the first prince of the blood royal of France, was born at Saint Cloud, in the year 1747. Known, during the lifetime of his father, by the title of the Duke de Chartres, he signalized himself by an inconsiderate love of pleasure, from which the most degrading attachments resulted. Ready to embrace the specious paradoxes by which misconduct has been known, particularly in this age, to assume a philosophical appearance, he displayed at an early hour the most absolute contempt for public opinion. Nevertheless, a robust frame, agreeable manners, considerable address in bodily exercises, and perhaps even the laxity of his principles, gave him a title to that distinction which an advantageous exterior easily obtains, and which would not have been denied to him, had he known how to support it by displaying a semblance

even of that intrepidity which we are desirous of seeing in princes. But being anxious to merit by a naval campaign the reversion of the post of grand admiral, which the Duke de Penthièvre, his father-in-law, then possessed, the conduct he manifested at the battle of Ouessant, in 1778, became a constant source of ridicule and disgrace. The object of the raillery of the people and of the epigrams of the court, he regarded as the most cutting reproach his nomination to the post of commandant-general of the hussars, which was given to him in recompence for his services at sea.

Dissatisfied with the court, the Duke of Orleans appeared solicitous of humiliating it, by a line of conduct unworthy of his birth. We behold him transforming the palace of his ancestors into a place of traffic and licentiousness, delivering himself up to speculations of shameful cupidity, despising in the education of the princes, his children, all established principles and customs, and even decency itself, seeking, by an ærostatic ascension, a glory ill-suited to his rank; an attempt in which the malignity of the public did not permit him happily to succeed.

Either through excess of indulgence, or disgust, the court appeared indifferent to his proceedings; but by opposing in the parliamentary assemblies the edicts of the council, he compelled Louis XVI. to banish him, and the people, seduced by specious appearances, thought they beheld in him the defender of their rights. Nevertheless, though he had greatly incurred the displeasure of the king, upon the death of the Duke of Orleans, in 1787, the house and the honours attributed to the first prince of the blood, were bestowed upon him. But this debased nobleman, far from being

sensible of this act of forbearance in his sovereign, sought only to take advantage of circumstances, which soon presented to him an ample field for the projects of revenge which he had nourished against his family. It is said, that on hearing he was surnamed at Versailles, *le Bourbeux Bourbon*, he exclaimed, *si je suis dans la bourbe je la laverai avec des flots de sang*.

Upon the assembling of the states general, he exerted himself to the utmost to fill that assembly with his creatures and his partisans. He caused himself to be appointed a deputy of a city under his influence, and when the third estate separated from the other two orders, he hastened to unite himself with such of the nobility as were attached to that party. At that period, his adherents did not scruple openly to disclose their intention of appointing him lieutenant-general of the kingdom, after having pronounced the interdiction of Louis XVI.

Formally accused, by a series of charges made by the magistrates of the *Chatelet*, of being the author of the insurrection of the sixth of October, he was acquitted by the assembly, but not in the opinion of the public, and again banished by the king. But when, after a residence of eight months in England, he obtained of the unfortunate but feeble monarch, the permission of returning to France, he carried into execution those projects which his absence had only suspended. He displayed at first his patriotism in preferring the title of Citizen of France, to the quality of prince of the blood; and soon became the slave of a faction of which he was flattered by being the chief, dissipated his treasure to court the favour of the populace, caused himself to be elected a member of the convention, changed his name into that of *Egalite*, and put the seal to the indignation of the

## DUKE OF ORLEANS.

[FRANCE.]

public and to his atrocities by voting openly for the death of his benefactor, his relative, and the head of his family, in the person of the king.

A little time after, those whom the Duke of Orleans regarded as his instruments, while he in fact was serviceable to them, resolved upon his destruction, because he had ceased to be useful. They caused him to be arrested, brought him in his turn before the revolutionary tribunal, where, the victim of his own irregularities, he was tried and condemned by his accomplices. The sentence was carried into effect at Paris on the sixth of November, 1793, in the midst of the shouts and insults of that populace whom his gold had seduced. He was then forty-six. His features, which had been regular in his youth, were then nearly disfigured by the usual concomitants of a debauched life. He was ignorant, credulous, and evidently beneath the part which he presumed to perform. It is said that he was easy of access, and indulgent to his servants. He displayed some firmness in his last moments; but what at that period must have been the bitter reflections of a prince, the deplorable example of the consequences of ambition, and of the subversion of every principle of morality!





P A R M A .

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## THE DUKE OF PARMA.

ALEXANDER FARNESE, Duke of Parma, great grandson of Pope Paul III. and by his mother's side grandson of Charles V. is indebted for his reputation, in a principal degree, to his military talents. To these, however, he united a goodness of heart, (which caused him to be esteemed even by his enemies) consummate prudence, uncommon sagacity in public affairs, and considerable address in influencing the human mind.

He was born in 1546. His youth passed away without giving any presage of his future grandeur. His talents began to unfold themselves in his engagements with the Turks: he particularly distinguished himself at the battle of Lepanto, and appeared worthy of commanding as soon as the reins were placed in his hands. After having followed Don John of Austria into the Low Countries, he succeeded him, in 1578, in the government of those provinces. The Duke of Parma, active, vigilant, indefatigable as a general, insinuating and pliant as a negociator, endeavoured to repair the imprudencies of his predecessor. He reconciled the Catholic provinces to the Spanish yoke, extended its dominion, expelled the French from the Low Countries, took Maestricht, Nimeguen, Breda, and Antwerp, and compelled the Prince of Orange and his son Maurice to retreat into Holland, and to act upon the defensive. He reduced under the jurisdiction of Spain a portion of the

Low Countries, and would, it is presumed, have conquered them entirely had his counsel been implicitly followed by Philip II.

In the midst of so many brilliant achievements, we unwillingly hazard a conjecture that he was privy to the assassination which terminated the days of the Prince of Orange, and which he countenanced. Two expeditions, in the opinion of some writers, have given peculiar eclat to the military career of the Duke of Parma; they are those which he made in France in 1590 and 1592, in order to support the partizans of the league against the army of Henry IV. In both of these he executed his designs with extraordinary prudence, and restrained or deceived, by his judicious manœuvres, his formidable rival. The second is peculiarly remarkable for the address with which, wounded and dying, he escaped from the army which blockaded him in a manner in his own camp, and retired to Arras, where he finished his career. After the battle of Aumale he apologized for not profiting by the rashness of the king, by saying, *I thought I was contending with a general, and not with a Carbine.* Henry IV. indignant at this remark, replied, *Il est bien aisé au Duc de Parma d'être prudent ; il ne risque que de ne pas faire des conquêtes dont il peut se passer ; au lieu que moi, je défends ma couronne.* The Duke died in 1592, aged forty-six.





## PENN.

ABOUT the year 1642, at a time when three or four sects desolated Great Britain by wars, undertaken in the name of God, arose the most tolerant and humane sect which Christianity has given rise to, that of the quakers.

The founder of it, George Fox, the son of a weaver, was a common ignorant man, but of irreproachable manners, and of a serious melancholy character. An assiduous reading of the Bible, a solitary life, and a constant habit of fasting, meditation, and prayer, heated his imagination; he had visions, extatic emotions, imagined he felt the inspiration of the apostles and prophets, and pretended, by adopting most of the principles of the anabaptists, to reduce christianity to its primitive simplicity and purity.

The spiritual and inward religion which he preached consisted in believing in a creating, rewarding, and avenging God, in imitating the life and adopting the morality of Jesus Christ, in subduing his passions, performing his duties, cherishing and assisting his brethren and living in peace with all mankind. It allowed neither of ministers nor religious ceremonies; reduced worship to meetings, in which every one of the faithful might in his turn become an apostle, awaiting the divine inspiration for utterance. This inspiration was usually manifested by a trembling, which obtained for the sect the denomination of *Quakers*. Moreover, Fox made it a strict rule with his disciples not to bear arms, to abstain

from all oaths, to bear injury and injustice without complaining, never to uncover the head to any one, and to use the words *thée* and *thou* to all persons, not to make use of any of those appellations which politeness has introduced, or pride requires, not to submit to the authority, customs, or caprices of fashion, to reject the superfluities of luxury, and to avoid the dissipation of society. In preaching his doctrine, Fox attacked the ministers of every religion, and the corruption of every order: he was persecuted, and suffered with resignation imprisonment and violence; and, as enthusiasm is a contagious malady, he soon gained over many proselytes. Cromwell, informed of the progress made by this sect, wished to be acquainted with it, and thought to be able to gain it over to his interest. But being unable to corrupt it, he soon ceased to protect it, confessing that it was the only religion in which he had found money ineffectual.

After the restoration, and during part of the reign of Charles II. the quakers were persecuted with great severity; not for their principles, but because they would not pay tithes to the clergy, and take the oaths required by law. Hitherto they had only found partizans among the lower class of people; two new disciples, as distinguished by their personal merit as by their rank, soon conferred on the sect a part of that respect which they themselves enjoyed; these were Robert Barclay and more particularly William Penn.

This latter, son of Sir William Penn, an English admiral, was born in 1644. Whilst pursuing his studies at Oxford, one Thomas Lowe, a quaker, undertook to convert him, and was successful. Young Penn was

lively, naturally eloquent, had a commanding aspect and manner, and in his turn gained over a number of his acquaintance; formed a little society; and at sixteen years of age found himself at the head of a sect. On leaving College he returned to his father, was reprimanded, and even beaten: he suffered patiently for what he looked upon as a good cause, and went to France, where he remained two years to complete his education; he then went to Ireland, to look after a considerable property which his father possessed there. In that country, the further instructions of Lowe, or (as some say) the loss of a favourite mistress, completed his vocation. He publicly embraced quakerism, preached, and was sent to prison. The admiral having recalled his son, made new efforts, but to no purpose, to induce him to renounce his opinions, or at least to abstain from professing them in public. The young man was inflexible, and would not even consent to take off his hat in presence of the King and the Duke of York, or not to use the words *thee* and *thou* to them. Driven from his paternal home, he preached in London; and as he was young, handsome, and well made, the ladies of the court and city crowded to hear him. Then it was that in conjunction with Barclay, he gave a new regular form to the doctrine of the quakers, and in particular, he divested it of all the absurdities which an ignorant and rude fanaticism had intermingled with it. He was several times imprisoned, but the influence of the Admiral, who could not consent to abandon his son, and the favour of the Duke of York, afterwards James II. obtained his liberty. After the death of his father, to whom he had been reconciled, Penn found himself in possession of a considerable fortune, and persevered still

in his opinions and conduct. Fox and he went over to the Continent to propagate their doctrine. Their labours were crowned with success at Amsterdam; but what reflected most honour on them, was the distinguished reception they met with from the Princess Palatine, aunt to George I. king of England, a woman illustrious for her understanding and learning, who then resided at the Hague. Penn had hitherto appeared only as the head of a sect; a new occurrence rendered him a man of consequence. Among the property which he inherited, there was a debt due by the crown, for money advanced by the Admiral. After having long applied for payment of it, Penn at last obtained, instead of money, the absolute property of an immense territory in America, under the dominion of the crown of Great Britain.

Behold our Quaker now become a sovereign, invested with a power to enact laws, to establish a government, to grant lands, and to impose taxes. The use Penn made of this power ranks him among the benefactors to humanity; he gave the name of Pennsylvania to the province which had been ceded to him, because it was covered with woods, and he published a charter of privileges for the colony he wished to establish in it. In 1682, he arrived on the banks of the Delaware, followed by a number of quaker families. Not thinking that the circumstance of his being a native of Europe, and in possession of an English patent, gave him a right to possess himself of the territory of the American nations without their consent, he entered into a treaty with them for the purchase of it. This treaty was not confirmed by oaths, but was observed with a punctuality which conciliated to the new colony the good will of its

neighbours, and obtained their assistance. These savage nations preserve to this day so faithful a tradition of the frankness and good faith of Penn, that they never place a greater confidence in treaties with the United States than when quakers assist at their conference, *because say they, the descendants of William Penn would not suffer them to be deceived.* This legislator, equal and perhaps superior to the most illustrious ones of ancient times, founded all his institutions on the double basis of liberty and property; he moreover established an absolute toleration; it was his wish that every man who believed in God should partake of the rights of a citizen; and that every man who adored him as a christian, of whatever sect he might be, should be a partaker in authority.

This was indeed a new spectacle to the world; a society governed by law alone, a sovereign whom every body *thee'd* and *thou'd*, a government without either soldiers or priests, proprietors without lawsuits and without judges, citizens all of equal rank except the magistracy, a people without arms, and neighbours without jealousy. Under the auspices of an entire civil, political, and religious liberty, the new colony encreased so rapidly, that in 1686 it amounted to 66,000 inhabitants; in 1776 the number exceeded 300,000. After having founded the beautiful city of Philadelphia, Penn returned to England, in 1684. The favour of James II. the former friend of his father, and the attachment which Penn always professed to the Stuart family caused him afterwards to be accused of being a papist, and even a jesuit, under the disguise of a quaker; but he fully cleared himself of this accusation, which had nearly occasioned the loss of his property and liberty.

PENN.

[ENGLAND.

In 1699, he returned to Pennsylvania with his family, was there received as a father coming to revisit his children, and found his colony flourishing and happy, and his laws religiously observed. After having made such changes in its constitution as from experience he found necessary, he returned to London, in 1701, to watch over the interests of his Pennsylvanians, which had been attacked in his absence. He enjoyed great credit during the reign of Queen Anne, was honoured and esteemed by that princess, and died in 1718, under the reign of George I. carrying with him the esteem and regret of his contemporaries, and truly deserving the admiration of posterity.





PHILIP 2<sup>d</sup>

## PHILIP II.

PHILIP II. son of Charles V. was born at Valladolid, on the 21st of May, 1527. He became king of Naples and Sicily by his father's abdication, in 1554, and ascended the throne of Spain by the same means on the 17th of January, 1556. Charles had made a peace with the French, but his son broke it; and having formed an alliance with England, poured into Picardy an army of 40,000 men. The French were cut to pieces at the battle of St. Quintin, which was fought on the 20th of August, 1557. That town was taken by assault; and the day which the breach was mounted Philip appeared armed *cap-à-pié*, in order to animate his soldiers. His terror was so great during the action, that he made two vows: one, that he should never again be present at a battle; and the other, to build a magnificent monastery dedicated to St. Laurence, to whom he attributed the success of his arms; which he executed at Escureal, a village about seven leagues from Madrid. The taking of Catelet, Ham, and Noyon, were the only advantages he derived from a battle which might have proved the ruin of France. He reaped, however, considerable advantage from the peace of Chateau-Cambreses, the master-piece of his politics.

After these glorious achievements, Philip returned in triumph to Spain. Upon his arrival at Valladolid, he demanded of the grand inquisitor the spectacle of an *auto da fé*. This was immediately granted: 40 wretches,

some of whom were priests, were strangled and burnt, and one burnt alive. This scene, so distressing to humanity, Philip beheld with the utmost composure. The cruelty he manifested on many occasions induced the Flemish to revolt. The revolution began with the fine and large provinces of the continent; but the maritime provinces only obtained their liberty. In 1579 they formed themselves into a republic, under the title of United Provinces. Philip sent the Duke of Alva to reduce them; but the oppression of that general only served to exasperate the spirit of the rebels. Upon his recall, Don John of Austria was sent against them. This general was succeeded by the Duke of Parma: but he could neither prevent the independence of the United Provinces, nor the progress of that republic which arose under his own eye. It was then that Philip proscribed the Prince of Orange, and set a price upon his head

The murder of this prince, which soon after followed, had not the effect to restore to Philip the Seven United Provinces. That republic, already powerful by sea, assisted England against him. Philip having resolved to distress Elizabeth, fitted out in 1588 a fleet called the *Invincible*. This fleet, consisting of one hundred and fifty large ships, filled with troops, commanded by the Duke of Medina Sidonia, sailed from Lisbon when the season was too far advanced, and a great part of it was dispersed in a storm. The remainder were attacked with consummate bravery by the English fleet, by which several were captured, and many were wrecked on the opposite coasts. This enterprise, which cost Spain forty millions of ducats and twenty thousand men, was productive only of disgrace. On hearing of this misfortune Philip exclaimed, with heroic resolution, "I sent my

ships to fight the English and not the winds: the will of God be done."

Philip, at length worn out by the indiscretions of his youth and by the toils of government, drew near his last hour. Exhausted by a complication of distempers, which he bore with uncommon patience, he expired on the 10th of September, 1598, at the age of seventy-two.

No character was ever drawn by different historians in more opposite colours than that of Philip. He possessed in an eminent degree penetration, vigilance, and a capacity for sovereignty. His temper was the most imperious, and his looks and demeanour were haughty and severe; yet among his subjects he was easy of access; and where his ambition and bigotry did not interfere, he was generally willing to redress their grievances. One great event of his domestic life was the death of his son, Don Carlos. The particulars of his crime are as little known as the manner in which it was committed; nor is there any evidence to prove that Philip would have caused him to be condemned by the inquisition. Philip II. caused to be printed at Anvers the fine polyglot Bible which bears his name; and it was he who subjected the islands, afterwards called the *Philippines*.

Though of a small size, he had an agreeable person. His countenance was grave, his air tranquil; and one could not discover from his looks either joy in prosperity or chagrin in adversity. The wars against Holland, France, and England, cost Philip 564 millions of ducats; but America furnished him with more than the half of that sum. Philip was very jealous of outward respect: he was unwilling that any person should speak to him but upon their knees. The Duke of Alba having one

day entered the Prince's cabinet without being introduced, he received the following harsh salutation : " An impudence like this of your's would deserve the hatchet." If he thought only how to make himself feared, he succeeded in doing so ; for few princes have been more dreaded, more abhorred, or caused more blood to flow, than Philip II.





P. M. T. T.

*Engraving of the portrait of the author of the*

## WILLIAM PITT.

WILLIAM PITT, second son of the celebrated Earl of Chatham, was born in 1759, during the time of his father's brilliant administration. After the resignation of that great statesman he devoted all his attention to the education of this his favourite son, in whom he had already discovered a mind and character similar to his own, and whom he considered as destined to increase the celebrity of his name and family. He particularly accustomed him from his earliest youth to express himself upon all occasions with precision and elegance. He encouraged him to join in every conversation, though they sometimes turned upon subjects that would have appeared too abstruse for his tender years. He would frequently enter into discussions with him without permitting him to evade any difficulty in the subject, or to leave it till it was completely exhausted. By this excellent mode of instruction his son acquired the early habit of expressing himself with facility, and enabled him to acquire those qualities so essential in a statesman, firmness and presence of mind.

Mr. Pitt completed his education at Cambridge with great distinction; and embracing the study of the law, practiced at the bar till 1780, when a general election took place. The following year he was returned to Parliament, and siding with the opposition party against the then minister, Lord North, he soon convinced the

House of Commons that he had inherited all the genius and abilities of his father.

The defects in the representation of that house were the principal objects which engaged his attention. His motion upon that subject was rejected, but it contributed much to his popularity and to his appointment in the following year to the important station of Chancellor of the Exchequer, when only twenty-three years of age. But the administration to which he was attached was soon dissolved; and Mr. Pitt determined to employ the leisure which his resignation procured him in visiting the principal courts of Europe.

When he was again appointed Chancellor of the Exchequer, at the end of the year 1783, he had the courage to continue in his place, though he found he had the majority of the house against him upon the great question respecting the government of India. But the dissolution of Parliament and a fresh election soon gave him that influence over the house which his predecessors had enjoyed, and enabled him to carry his celebrated India bill; which, bestowing on the governor-general of India an authority superior to all local controul, confirmed the power of Great Britain in those countries, and materially contributed to its present almost gigantic extent.

The year 1786 was remarkable for the treaty of commerce between England and France, under the auspices of Mr. Pitt. This famous treaty gave additional spirit to English enterprize, and ensured that commercial superiority which this country has ever since maintained.

Some time after, Mr. Pitt experienced an opposition which was the more formidable, as his opponents made use of the very weapons which he had himself formerly

wielded. The great manufacturing towns of Birmingham, Manchester, and Sheffield, demanded a reform in parliament, upon the plea that they returned no member to the House of Commons, while so many small and almost deserted boroughs frequently sent two. Mr. Pitt then victoriously refuted the arguments which he had employed upon his first entrance into parliament. He combated the specious theories by which the petitions were enforced, and strongly contended against any thing like innovation in the legislative government of the country.

But his eloquence and talents were still more eminently conspicuous during the many discussions which took place when the unfortunate malady of the king was announced to the public. Two important questions were then discussed;—whether the heir apparent of the crown, who was entitled to the regency, should possess the royal authority in all its plenitude, and without any restrictions; or whether the parliament could affix any limits to that authority, while in the hands of the regent. Mr. Pitt maintained the latter opinion, and it prevailed at last. The prince, unwilling to see the rights of the crown diminished while in his possession, appeared little anxious to exercise an authority so curtailed, and the minister continued to govern in the name of the king till the period when a recovery was known to have taken place.

Soon after the French revolution broke out, and engrossed all the attention of Mr. Pitt. He foresaw at an early period of that great change that the passions of those who pretended to regenerate France would not suffer them to confine themselves within the laws of prudence and discretion. At home he took the utmost

care to prevent a similar commotion from arising in his own country. This he effectually accomplished by many bold but salutary measures. The two acts against aliens and to prevent illegal assemblies, and the suspension of the Habeas Corpus, gave to his administration a power and energy which had never been witnessed since the accession of the house of Hanover. But he could not prevent England taking an active and at length a principal share in the war of 1793. The unfortunate issue of the first and succeeding coalitions is well known, and need not be repeated here. But if the result of these various combinations of most of the principal powers of Europe against that of France was unfavourable, yet it was a source of great consolation to reflect that while the sovereigns of the Continent were daily experiencing the most fatal reverses of fortune, the prosperity and power of this country, so far from being diminished, were rapidly increasing in the midst of so much havock and destruction. The throne of Tippoo-Saib was subverted, the island of Ceylon, a part of the Moluccas, and the Cape of Good Hope, were conquered, and the commerce of France and Holland was effectually crushed.

The affairs of the Continent did not wholly absorb the attention of the minister; the rebellion in Ireland, and the apprehension of an invasion of that island on the part of the French, suggested the propriety and operated as an inducement to accomplish an Union of the two kingdoms. The parliament of Ireland was suppressed, and thus an end was put to the incessant struggle between the English cabinet and those who were attached even to an appearance of independence.

After a war of so many years, the necessity of a peace began to be felt even in England. Mr. Pitt was aware,

that consistently with that line of conduct to which he was pledged with respect to the contest against France, his presence in the cabinet would prevent so desirable an object. It is also surmised, that in the endeavour to effect an union with Ireland he had held out some promises to the catholics of that country, which the other advisers of the kind did not think proper to put in execution. Under these circumstances he retired from the administration of affairs in March, 1801, and was succeeded by Mr. Addington, then Speaker of the House of Commons, and since created Lord Sidmouth. Mr. Pitt continued in retirement till 1803, when he re-appeared in Parliament, and in opposition to the ministry which he had himself established. The war having again broken out between England and France, he became once more prime minister in 1804; advised a declaration of war against Spain, and by his own personal credit succeeded in forming another coalition against France. It is well known that this confederacy was still more unfortunate than the preceding ones; and Mr. Pitt, who had been for some time wasted by a constitutional malady, did not survive the intelligence of the defeat at Austerlitz and the peace of Presburgh. He expired with the words "Oh, my country!" quivering upon his lips. He was buried at the public expense, and his debts were discharged by the parliament.

Few ministers ever acted in more difficult times; no one ever displayed more consummate eloquence and ability in the defence of his administration. His speeches were seldom prepared, and unaccompanied by much action; his language was dignified, his elocution fluent, his voice impressive. His success as an orator was certainly owing in a great degree to the art with

which he could accommodate his arguments to the various characters and opinions of those to whom he spoke. It was this profound knowledge of the temper and habits of his countrymen that enabled him to retain, during his whole administration, so much of their confidence and esteem; and of this no better proof can be given than the eagerness with which the merchants hastened to take the loans entered into by him.

Our limits will not permit us to mention the financial operations which distinguished his ministry. He has been sometimes accused of a design to enlarge the authority of the king at the expence of the public freedom. But the extreme difficulty of the times in which he lived may furnish an excuse for some unusual, but necessary measures. It may also be remarked in his justification, that when Mr. Fox, his great antagonist, succeeded him in the ministry, he did not think proper to depart in any material degree from the wise regulations adopted by his illustrious predecessor.





PIPONTINS.

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## P. PONTIUS.

THERE are few engravers whose works are more generally known and esteemed than those of Paul Pontius; yet historians have given but few details of his life.

He was born at Antwerp, about the year 1596, and became the disciple of Lucas Vosterman. Pontius was more desirous of improving his talents, and of obtaining a fortune by assiduous labour, than of introducing himself into the world; he therefore did not study out of his own country. He was accustomed to seclude himself with a small circle of friends, and lived, in a manner, unknown.

Pontius united to accuracy of design and peculiarity of character, a correct style of engraving, and a perfect knowledge of chiar-oscuro; he therefore gave a species of magical effect to the pictures he copied, and to those of Rubens in a particular degree. His historical prints are in great request, though he copied portraits with corresponding success.

Pontius is one of the engravers for whom Rubens had a marked predilection; and if he be inferior to Vosterman in point of delicacy and variety of execution, and to Bolswert in facility, he is considered equal to either in vigour of touch and general effect.

The labours of Pontius were multifarious. They reckon at least fifty portraits engraved by him after Rubens, Vandyck, and Holbein, and the like number

P. PONTIUS.

[HOLLAND.]

on different subjects, chiefly from the pictures of Rubens. His most approved pieces are the *Pentecost* and the *Assembly of the Gods*, after the latter master.

The precise period of the death of Pontius is not known. It is presumed that he outlived Vandyck, to whom he was attached by the strongest ties of friendship.





RICHARDSON

Engraved by J. H. Smith & Co. New York

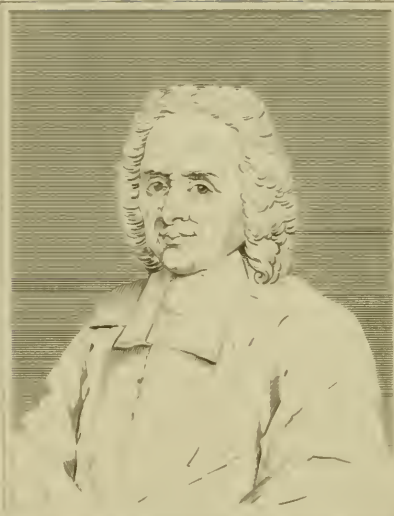
## RICHARDSON.

SAMUEL RICHARDSON, a printer and an ingenious writer, was born in Derbyshire, in 1689. His education was confined ; and in 1706 he was bound apprentice to Mr. Wilde of Stationers' Hall ; and after the expiration of his time, he worked as compositor and corrector of the press for some years. At length he established himself in Fleet-street. He soon became eminent in his profession ; and by the interest of Mr. Onslow, speaker of the House of Commons, obtained the printing of the journals of that House. In 1740 he published his *Pamela*, a novel, which met with an uncommon reception. His next performance was *Clarissa Harlowe*, which is considered his master-piece. This was followed by his novel of *Sir Charles Grandison*, a work which possesses great beauties. In 1754 he was chosen master of the stationer's company ; and a few years afterwards he purchased a moiety of the patent of law printer to the king. Besides the works we have specified, Mr. Richardson published a volume of familiar letters, with other productions of a moral tendency. He died in 1761.

It is pretended that Richardson lived for a long time in the world as if he had lived in solitude, during which period he was employed in observing mankind, and in laying the foundation of those admirable compositions which have recommended him to posterity. He was born with all the necessary qualities to deli-

neate the progress of the passlons, and to penetrate into the secret recesses of the human mind. To the faculty of an observer, he united in an eminent degree, the merit of a painter; no one has exceeded him in the art of composition, and in the charm of colouring: he has therefore been placed on the first rank among the novelists who have promoted the cause of virtue and morality. His performances in foreign countries, have been either extravagantly admired, or unjustly criticised.





ROLLIN

*Published by Thomas and Charles Peabody*

## ROLLIN.

CHARLES ROLLIN, a celebrated writer, was the son of a cutler at Paris, and was born there on the 30th of January, 1661. He studied at the college of Du Plessis, in which he obtained a bursary through the interest of a Benedictine monk. After having studied humanity and philosophy at that college, he applied to divinity three years at the Sorbonne. He afterwards became professor of rhetoric, and in 1668 succeeded Horsan, his master, as professor of eloquence in the Royal College. In 1694, he was chosen rector of the university. By virtue of his office he spoke the annual panegyric upon Louis XIV. He was a man of indefatigable attention; and trained innumerable persons who did honour to the church, the state, and the army.

Upon the expiration of the rectorship, Cardinal Noailles engaged him to superintend the studies of his nephews, who were in the college of Laon; and in 1699 with great reluctance, he was made coadjutor to the principal college of Beauvais. He now began to be employed upon Quintilian, an author he highly valued, and saw neglected, not without uneasiness. In 1710 the university of Paris, willing to have a head suitable to the importance of their interests, chose Rollin again rector; but he was displaced in about two months by a *letter de cachet*. The university protested against this proceeding, but to no purpose. The public, however, was a gainer by the removal; for he now employed himself to compose his *Treatise upon the Manner of Study-*

*ing and Teaching the Belles Lettres*, which was published in two volumes, in 1726; and two more appeared in 1728.

This work has been exceedingly successful, and justly so; and its success encouraged its author to undertake another work of equal use and entertainment, his *Ancient History of the Egyptians, Carthaginians, &c.* which he finished in thirteen volumes, octavo, and published between 1730 and 1738. The reader will easily discover in this work the same attachment to religion, the same desire for the public good, and the same love of virtue, which appears in that of the *Belles Letters*. While the last volumes of the *Ancient History* were printing, he published the first of his *Roman History*, which he lived to carry on to the eighth, and into part of the ninth. This history met with less success than his *Ancient History*. He published also lesser pieces, containing letters, harangues, discourses, &c. in two volumes, 12mo. His Latin poems merit particular eulogium. He died in 1741.

Rollin was a man of an admirable disposition; very ingenious, consummate in polite learning, of rigid morals, and eminently pious. Nothing could be more benign, more pacific, more moderate, than his temper. Instead of blushing at the lowness of his birth, Rollin on no occasion hesitated to speak of it. "It is from the Cyclops's shop (says he in a Latin epigram to one of his friends, to whom he had sent a small sword,) that I have taken my flight towards Parnassus." Rousseau, the poet, held him in such veneration, that he came out of banishment, *incognito*, to Paris, on purpose to visit him.





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## MARSHAL SAXE.

THIS superior man belongs to a nation in the bosom of which he has lived and acquired celebrity; a hero appertains still more justly to a people whose armies he has led to victory. It is on this account that France acknowledges Marshal Saxe, and places him on the list of the great characters who have rendered it illustrious.

Maurice, Count de Saxe, was born at Dresden, in 1696. He was the natural son of Frederick Augustus Elector of Saxony, who was elected the same year king of Poland, and of the Countess of Konigsmark, a Swedish lady, so celebrated for her beauty, her understanding, and her extraordinary adventures.

From his infancy the Count displayed the most lively disposition for war: at the age of thirteen, he carried arms under Prince Eugene and the Duke of Marlborough, in the campaign of 1709, so fatal to the French forces. He distinguished himself at the battle of Malplaquet, and was frequently honoured with the eulogiums of experienced warriors. One day, however, upon his return from an action, in which he had been led away by the ardour incident to youth, while he was complimented by several officers, Prince Eugene said to him, "Beware of confounding temerity with real courage; well regulated understandings are never deceived." After having passed two years in this school, the Count served under his father against the Swedes,

and distinguished himself in 1715, at the siege of Stralsund, which Charles XII. defended in person. Two years afterwards he was with Prince Eugene in Hungary: and in 1718, was at the siege and in the battle of Belgrade in the war against the Turks.

Europe being in a state of peace, the Count de Saxe went into France, under the regency, where he appeared desirous of establishing himself. He was made Field Marshal, and obtained permission to purchase a German regiment, to which he gave his name, and which he himself formed after some new principles which he had conceived. He was ever occupied on matters that related to war; and Folard with whom he was connected, and whom he consulted as a master, predicted his success.

In 1727, he was unanimously elected Grand Duke of Courland, by the states of that country, so jealous of exerting a privilege which they pretended to belong only to a sovereign. This right was contested by the Poles, (Courland being under their protection) who had formed the project of dividing it among the Palatinates. The states entertained a hope of conciliating their suffrage, by chusing the son of their monarch. The Count repaired to Mittaw; but the Poles and the Russians who conceived a design of overrunning that country, caused the election to be declared void, and opposed it as an usurpation of the sovereignty. After struggling against the intrigues of these two nations, and resisting, with determined valour, the force that was openly brought against him, the Count was compelled to submit and to quit the country. He took, nevertheless, the title of Grand Duke of Courland, protested against the elections which were subsequently

made, and retained always the hope of governing that province.

Upon his return to France, he devoted himself, with renewed ardour, to the study of the mathematics, to mechanics, and to all the sciences connected with the military art; and appeared with great eclat in the war of 1733, at Ettinghen, at the siege of Philipsburg, under Marshal Berwick. At the head of a body of the army, he prevented Prince Eugene from attempting the passage of the Rhine, and was made lieutenant general, in 1734.

The beginning of the war of 1741 presented to the Count de Saxe fresh opportunities of signalizing himself. The emperor Charles VII. is indebted to him for the taking of Prague and Agria. He was afterwards ordered to conduct a body of troops into Alsace, a mission which he happily executed, and retook the lines of Laulesbourg.

In 1744 his services were rewarded by the staff of Marshal of France, at a moment when his talents appeared in their full splendour. From the opening of the campaign Marshal Saxe, by the judicious position of a portion of the army, which was detached by his orders, promoted the success of all the enterprises of the main body which Louis XV. commanded in person. In the month of August, that prince being obliged to repair to Alsace, where his presence was necessary, confided to him, with the chief command of the troops which he left in Flanders, the care of preserving his conquests, and of covering his frontiers; this the general effected by his skilful manœuvres, although with 20,000 men less than the enemy that opposed him.

This campaign, considered as a chef-d'œuvre in the military art, was followed by one even more brilliant, that of 1745, in which the Marshal, attacked by sickness, and almost in a dying state, commanded the army under the orders of the king, who formed the resolution of joining it, accompanied by the Dauphin. Under their eyes was fought the celebrated battle of Fontenoy. The victory was the more flattering to the general, as for a considerable time he had himself conceived the battle lost.

The campaign of 1746 was illustrated by the taking of Namur and the victory of Racoux. The Count de Saxe was rewarded by the title of *Marechal-General des Camps et Armées*, Turenne and Villars had been previously honoured. That of 1747 was celebrated by the victory of Lawfeld; and the campaign of 1748 by the siege of Maestricht, which decided the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.

The Marshal, on its conclusion, retired to Chambard, an estate given to him by the king, where he died two years after, full of glory, in 1750. His body was conveyed to Strasbourg with the greatest pomp, in order to be interred in a Lutheran church, where a mausoleum was erected.

Marshal Saxe was gifted with surprising bodily strength, and with peculiar activity of mind. During the leisure of peace, he gave birth to a series of projects, many of which were ridiculous; but placed at the head of an army, prudence and mature reflection directed all his enterprizes, and insured their success. In the campaign of 1744, charged with a defensive war, he carried into effect all the resources of the military art, in which neither the fortune nor the valour of a soldier could bear

a part; and by his extraordinary skill rendered useless the superiority of the forces of the enemy. In the following campaigns, where he acted upon the offensive, he displayed talents no less brilliant than profound. And to his immortal glory, be it added, to his numerous other great qualities as a general, that he was no less occupied in the preservation and in the welfare of his soldiers, than in the means of securing a victory.

He has left behind him a work entitled, *My Reveries*. He composed it upon his return from Courland, with singular rapidity, and in the intervals of an intermittent fever; but he afterwards retouched it. He there develops the principles which appear to have had considerable influence on the mode of modern warfare. He insists upon the utility of light pieces of artillery, which may be rapidly transported; upon the advantages attendant on the army that attacks; and on the importance of troops of light infantry; in short, upon the absolute superiority of infantry over cavalry, when they stedfastly await the shock and duly reserve their fire, and upon their certain destruction at all times when they act in a different manner.

The Count de Saxe was married very young, but not being able to live in harmony with the lady whom he espoused, he caused the marriage to be dissolved, in 1721. He had only from that union a son, who died at an early age.

Marshal Saxe was a Lutheran, and his body could not therefore be buried in any of the catholic churches in France, with the usual ceremonies attendant on the funerals of great men. This made the Queen of Louis XV. say, with some archness, "what a pity it is that we

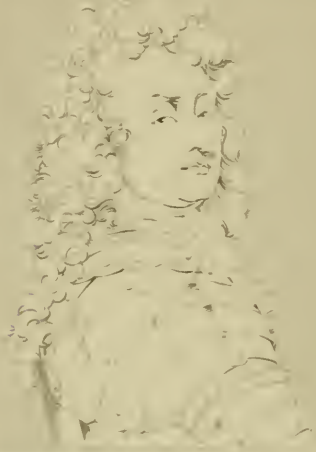
## MARSHAL SAXE.

[GERMANY.

cannot sing one *De Profundis* to a man who has made us sing so many *Te Deums*."

Of the greatness of Marshal Saxe's courage who can doubt? yet his friends said of him, that he would never fight a duel; that he always looked under his bed every night: and every night locked his chamber door.





SCHOMBERG.

## SCHOMBERG.

FREDERIC ARMAND, Duke of Schomberg, was born of an illustrious family, and made his first campaign under Frederick, Prince of Orange. The precise time of his birth is unknown. At an early age he acquired considerable reputation, and in 1650 he passed into the French service, and obtained the government of Gravelines and Furnes. The court of France, being disposed to assist the house of Braganza in its enterprize against the Spaniards, without breaking openly with that nation, sent the duke into Portugal, without giving him any direct mission. He there conducted himself with so much bravery and prudence, at the head of armies, that Spain, in 1668, was compelled to make peace, and to acknowledge John of Braganza the legitimate heir to the kingdom of Portugal. Catalonia having, in 1672, experienced the force of his arms, he was honoured, although a protestant, in 1675, with the staff of a marshall of France. The Low Conntries in 1676, presented a new field for the display of his military talents; and the sieges of Maestricht and Charleroy, which he undertook, confirmed the reputation he had previously acquired.

On the revocation, however, of the edict of Nantes, in 1685, he quitted France, and went to Brandenburg, where the elector made him minister of state. Some time afterwards, either through restlessness of disposition or necessity, he left Germany, and went to Portugal,

## SCHOMBERG.

[GERMANY.

from whence he travelled into Holland, and at the revolution accompanied the Prince of Orange to England. On this monarch's assuming the reins of government he was created a peer, and had a large sum voted him by parliament. In 1687 he went with King William to Ireland, and was present at the famous battle of the Boyne. Having previously greatly distinguished himself during the day, which terminated so gloriously in favour of the British arms, the duke was shot by mistake, as he was crossing the Boyne, by the French refugees of his own regiment.

It is pretended, that being attached to the country which his religion compelled him to abandon, Schomberg, in enlisting himself under the ensigns of William, required a solemn assurance from the prince that he should never be employed against France.





SHAKESPEARE

*Engraving by J. Smith, 1794*

## SHAKESPEARE.

WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE, the father of the English drama, was born at Stratford-upon-Avon, in the year 1564. He was the eldest of ten children. His father, who was a considerable dealer in wool, had so large a family that he could give him but a slender education. He was some time at the grammar school of Stratford, where he attained the rudiments of the Latin language. At the age of 17 he married the daughter of one Hathaway, a substantial farmer in the neighbourhood; and perhaps he would never have had an idea of the talent he received from nature but for an event which removed him from the obscure station in life to which he appeared condemned.

Having by a misfortune common to young men fallen into bad company, some of whom were in the practice of deer stealing, he was prevailed upon to engage with them in robbing the park of Sir Thomas Lucy, of Chalecote. For this he was prosecuted by that gentleman; and out of revenge Shakespeare made a ballad upon Sir Thomas, which is said to have been so bitter that the prosecution was redoubled, and he was obliged to shelter himself in London. Here he formed an acquaintance with the players, and was soon enrolled among them. Mr. Rowe observes, that he never could meet with any further account of him, as an actor, than that his highest part was the *Ghost* in his own *Hamlet*. We are equally ignorant which was the first play he wrote. All that we

know is, that Queen Elizabeth had several of his plays represented before her, and, without doubt, gave him several marks of her favour. It is supposed to be this princess whom, in his "Midsummer-Night's Dream," he designates "a fair vestal, throned by the west."

She was so pleased by the character of Falstaff, that it is said she commanded him to show him in love; on which occasion Shakespeare wrote his admirable comedy of "The Merry Wives of Windsor." He found a particular friend in the Earl of Southampton, who generously sent him a thousand pounds to enable him to make a purchase.

Each successive year contributed to the glory of the author, who soon eclipsed the English Orestes and Pylades, Beaumont and Fletcher; who, until Shakespeare appeared, occupied the scene. Their pieces combine many real beauties and interesting situations, but are sullied by obscenities for which Shakespeare is not often to be reproached.

As divested of jealousy as of pride he contributed to the advancement of genius wherever he found it; and it is to him that England is indebted for other writers who were an ornament to the stage.

Shakespeare, though in the height of his glory, seemed desirous of the pleasures of a country life; and rejecting every effort that was made to detain him in London, returned to his native place, where his wit and good-humour introduced him to the acquaintance of the gentlemen in the neighbourhood. Among others was one Mr. Combe, an old gentleman noted for his wealth and his usury, on whom, by way of epitaph, he wrote the following sarcastic verses:—

Ten in the hundred! lies here ingraved,  
'Tis a hundred to ten his soul is not saved ;  
If any man ask who lays in this tomb,  
Oh, oh, quoth the Devil, 'tis my John-a-Combe.

which he never forgave.

Shakespeare died in 1616, and was buried at a church in Stratford, where a monument is placed to his memory. In 1740 a tomb was erected in honour of this distinguished poet in Westminster Abbey, with this inscription:—

Gulielmo Shakespeare, anno post mortem 124,  
Amor publicus posuit.

Among his dramatic works his most admired productions are Othello, the Merry Wives of Windsor, Hamlet, Macbeth, Coriolanus, the First Part of Henry the Fourth, and Richard the Third. Certain critics have denominated his pieces neither tragedies nor comedies ; but whatever be their title, whatever their inconsistencies or defects, Shakespeare possessed above every other writer the talent of delineating man as he really is, and of displaying, in a superlative degree, all those shades and varieties of the passions which inhabit the human breast. All his personages are to be found in nature, no one is copied from the other ; they are all depicted with a masterly hand, and exhibit that peculiarity of feature by which they should be characterized ; from thence arise those inequalities of style so much condemned by foreign writers ; but which the author, it is presumed, considered necessary to the perfection of his pictures.

Shakespeare had three daughters : two lived to be married, Judith to Mr. Thomas Quincy, and Susanna to Dr. Hall, a physician ; but neither of them left behind them any children.

## SHAKESPEARE.

[ENGLAND.

The best editions of his works are Johnson and Stevens's united, in 15 vols. 8vo.; and Reid's in 10 volumes.





*J. Smith*

*Portrait of John Smith, Esq.*

## ALGERNON SIDNEY.

ALGERNON SIDNEY, one of the most violent republicans of modern times, was born about 1617. He was the son of Robert, Earl of Leicester, and, by his mother's side, grandson of the Earl of Northumberland. The birth of Sidney, his education and connexion with the court, the honours bestowed on his family, and the offices they held, should have attached him to the party of Charles I. at the beginning of the civil wars. The hatred to arbitrary power, which appeared innate in him, induced him, at the age of twenty-one, to support the parliament. Fairfax gave him a commission in the army, which led him to support, with infinite zeal and courage, the cause of liberty. In 1647 he was nominated one of the king's judges, but did not sit in the high court of justice on that occasion. He was at that period attached to the *Independents*, who, aiding the ambitious views of Cromwell, were desirous of establishing a republican form of government. When Cromwell, however, assumed the sovereignty under the title of Protector, Sidney retired to private life. Secluded in the family seat at Penshurst, he composed his first "*Discourse on Government*." In 1659, after the death of the protector, and the abdication of his son, Sidney re-appeared in parliament, was appointed a member of the privy council, and chosen to negotiate a peace between Denmark and Sweden. Far from promoting the re-establishment of royalty, he did every thing in his

## ALGERNON SIDNEY. [ENGLAND.

power to prevent it. At the moment when the English were celebrating the restoration of Charles II. Sidney, their ambassador, in inscribing his name in the *album* of the university of Copenhagen, added this device,—

*Manus hæc inimica tyrannis*

*Ense petit placidam sub libertate quietem.*

Either from distrust, or attachment to his principles, he resisted the overtures of Monk, refused to avail himself of the amnesty which was at first promised, but afterwards most dishonourably violated; he wandered for seventeen years over the principal states on the Continent, without suffering the length of this voluntary exile, the unkindness of his family, the danger of his situation, and even the indigence to which he was at times reduced to weaken his intrepidity. At length, in 1677, his father, the Earl of Leicester, having obtained his pardon, he returned to his native country. Twice he offered himself a candidate for a seat in parliament, but the court dreading the violence of his character, and the ascendancy of his talents, prevented his election. At this time the ferment which prevailed seemed to presage a renewal of the troubles to which the country had been a prey. The influence which the Duke of York exercised in the administration, and the avowed attachment of that prince to the catholic religion, operated as a motive or pretext for the animosity of the leaders of the popular party. This Sidney joined, and connecting himself with the Duke of Monmouth, the lords Essex, Russell, Shaftesbury, Grey, &c. was implicated with them, and apprehended on a charge of being concerned in the Rye-house plot, the object of which was to destroy the king, and occasion a general revolt. On this point historians differ, but even those who consider the conspi-

racy as proved, confess that a spirit of revenge directed openly the violent proceedings of which Sidney was the victim. The laws were unjustly violated. A single person stepped forward as his accuser; to supply the place of a second witness the manuscript of his "*Discourse on Government*," found among his papers, was produced, and this very production, which had been long previously composed, which had never been published, nor communicated to any one, was, in the opinion of a sanguinary judge, considered a sufficient motive for his condemnation. Sidney was then 61. After having defended himself with great warmth, during his trial, he gloried dying a martyr in the cause of liberty, and proceeded to the place of execution with the tranquil intrepidity of a man who had taken M. Brutus for his model. The chief justice Jefferies, so celebrated for his judicial assassinations, exhorted him to bear his lot with firmness. "Feel my pulse," replied Sidney, coolly, to him, "and judge if it be agitated; I was never more composed." He was beheaded, on Tower Hill, on the 7th of December, 1683. After the revolution of 1688, the sentence against him was declared illegal, in the first parliament of William and Mary.

Sidney, in his political conduct, was doubtless led away, like many others, by that spirit of enthusiasm with which the nation was deluded from the end it at first proposed. His mind, naturally generous and impassioned, enlarged by the study of the ancients, and worthy of the best days of Rome, might easily conceive a hope of seeing them return. A similar illusion might be construed into a crime, but it is an error appertaining only to men of exalted characters. With respect to the principles established by Sidney, in his "*Discourses on*

ALGERNON SIDNEY. [ENGLAND.

*Government,*" they are such as reason owns, and which policy ought to consecrate in every enlightened age. He places the origin and right of power in the people, and lays down very bold and paradoxical maxims deducible from that position. They were printed in 1689, and translated into French in 1702.





## STERNE.

LAURENCE STERNE, an English writer, of a very peculiar cast, was born at Clonmell, in the south of Ireland, on the twenty-fourth of November, 1713. In 1722 he was sent to School at Halifax, in Yorkshire, where he continued till 1732, when he was removed to Jesus College, in Cambridge. How long he resided in College, or what progress he made in literature or science, is not known: his works display rather native genius than profound erudition. Upon quitting the university he went to York, and, being in orders, was presented to the living of Sutton, by the interest of his uncle, Dr. Sterne, a prebendary of that church. In 1741 he married, and was soon after made a prebendary of York. By his wife's means he got the living of Stillington, but remained near twenty years at Sutton, doing duty at both places. He was then in good health, which however soon after forsook him; and books, painting, fiddling, and shooting, were, as he tells us, his amusements.

In 1760, he went to London to publish his two first volumes of "Tristram Shandy," and was that year presented to the curacy of Coxwold. In 1762, he went to France, and two years after Italy, for the recovery of his health, but he never recovered it. He languished under a consumption of the lungs, without the slightest depression, till 1768, when death put a period to his terrestrial existence.

The works of Sterne are very generally read. In every serious page, and in many of much levity, the author writes in praise of benevolence, and declares that no one who knew him could suppose him one of those wretches who heap misfortune on misfortune. Anecdotes, however, are in circulation of him, extremely well authenticated, which prove, that it was easier for him to praise this virtue than to practise it. His wit is universally allowed, and in his manner of writing he resembled Rabelais, but his originality is not such as his fond admirers have generally supposed. He has borrowed both matter and manner from various authors, and in particular from an old work, "The Anatomy of Melancholy" by Burton. Of this every reader will be convinced, who may be inclined to peruse the candid comments on his works published by Dr. Ferriar, in the fourth volume of the memoirs of the Literary and Philosophical Society of Manchester.

The works of Sterne consist of "The Life and Opinions of Tristram Shandy;" Sermons; A Sentimental Journey; and Letters, published after his death.





## SWEDENBORG.

EMMANUEL SWEDENBORG was born at Stockholm, in 1688. His father was a bishop of the Lutheran persuasion, and president of the Swedish churches. The subject of the present memoir was liberally educated; he studied the physical and mathematical sciences, not only at Upsal, but in the principal universities of Europe, and acquired so much reputation in his native country, that Charles XII. appointed him assessor of the metallic college, giving him the choice of the appointment, or of that of professor in the university of Upsal. This office he held till 1747, when he resigned it. Swedenborg, on his part, rendered the monarch an essential service in 1718, by causing to be constructed a work of considerable magnitude, which enabled him to commence the siege of Fredericshall. Before he exercised the functions of assessor, he visited the mines of foreign countries, particularly those of Saxony and Hartz, and studied very profoundly, the science of metallurgy. He formed an acquaintance, during his travels, with Wolfius, and other learned men, and returned to Sweden in 1722. He there published several tracts on mineralogy and navigation, and committed to the press, in 1734, his great work, in 3 vols. fol. entitled, *Œuvres Philosophiques et Mineralogiques*.

At length Swedenborg abstracted himself from these studies, imagining that "he belonged to the society

of angels, in which things spiritual and heavenly are the only subjects of discourse and entertainment." Filled with this notion he sent into the world a number of mystical books on the New Jerusalem; on Heaven and Hell, Spiritual Influx, the White Horse in the Revelations, &c. by which he rendered his name celebrated throughout Europe.

Swedenborg was moderate in the discussion of these subjects, although his doctrine was furiously attacked by the Moravians, whom he reproached as deviating from the true catholic faith. He was charitable and tender in his disposition, retired in his habits of life, and strongly recommended meditation on the word of God, resignation, purity of heart and manners, a scrupulous attention to the moral and social duties, and the desire of doing good. His opinions, however, obtained little notice in his life time; but since his death they have produced a sect, and several conventicles have been erected in London and elsewhere, called New Jerusalem Temples; in which the memory of Swedenborg is respected as that of a prophet. He died, in London, in 1722.





THUR.

## THOURET.

JACQUES-GUILLAUME THOURET, was born at Pont l'Eveque, a department of the Calvados, in the month of August, 1746. He performed his studies at the university of Caen, where he distinguished himself by a happy facility, united with great application. The success which he there obtained having inspired his mind with a desire of glory, he resolved to seek it in the functions of jurisprudence, and devoted himself entirely to the study of the law. The Roman laws, founded upon the principles of natural equity, were the object of his first labours. These he attained in a few years, and thereby rendered himself familiar with those grand maxims which contain the seeds of all judicial decisions, those rules of justice, which since, embodied in the code Napoleon, have become the general law of France.

The country was at that epoch governed by customs, which in number surpassed those of her provinces. Thouret studied the law of Normandy, so renowned for the wisdom of its dispositions, and the ability of its commentators. At the age of nineteen, he pleaded his first cause before the bailiwick of Pont l'Eveque; and the brilliancy of this *debut* induced the young orator to believe that he possessed talents worthy of a greater theatre.

These, however, he did not venture to display until he had brought them to perfection by constant exercise and intense study. It was about the year 1770 that Thouret,

then twenty-four, established himself at Rouen. He there soon became the principal ornament of the bar. His pleadings glowing with a vehemence which judicial discussions rarely excite, appeared to offer a particular model of the eloquence suitable to them. A simple and modest exordium, a clear and elegant narrative, an admiral connexion in the exposition of proofs, and the art of attaching the whole to a first proposition, in point of fact or principle, of which the evidence was thereby demonstrated, by a series of irresistible arguments; such was the general character of these orations. But he has evinced, on many important occasions, that the great movements of the oratorical art were familiar to him, and that he possessed, in the same degree, the talent of interesting the heart, and of enlightening the understanding. The speech he delivered on the opening of the Parliament, in 1774, will be long remembered at Rouen. Never was eloquence more skilful, more impetuous, or more energetic; never did acclamations more incessant signalize the triumph of the orator.

Although Thouret is indebted to this title for his chief glory, and did not as a writer possess the same superiority, the memoirs he published, and which exhibit considerable research and erudition, maintain a distinguished rank in the opinion of lawyers.

For many years the discussion of private interests had alone occupied his talents; an opportunity, however, soon presented itself for him to devote them to subjects of public importance. Elected, in 1787, solicitor-general to the third estate of the provisional assembly at Rouen, he composed upon the grand objects of the administration submitted to the judgment of that assembly, a work which fixed the attention of the ministry, and attached to the author the reputation of a publiciste.

The moment approached in which a revolution, the most pure in its principles, the most terrible in its results, was about to convulse the empire of France. The general states were convoked; the city of Rouen had chosen Thouret for its principal deputy. He did not fail to justify by his conduct the sense he entertained of this honourable distinction, and was reckoned, in its first proceedings, among the most distinguished members of the House of Commons.

It was contrary to his advice that the deputies of the third estate consented to adopt the denomination of the *national assembly*. The warmth with which he combated this premature determination, produced a change among the privileged orders in their real opinions. They flattered themselves with being able to seduce him to their interest, by raising him to the presidency; but Thouret thought it his duty to undeceive them, by refusing an honour which was only, in his idea, the result of a mistake.

The discussion upon the *Veto* furnished him with an occasion of developing his principles, and of displaying the force of his eloquence. He maintained, with Mirabeau, that it was not necessary to put any restriction to the exercise of the royal sanction.

Appointed a member of the committee of the constitution, he presented the plan of new territorial division of France, and of a new system of administration. Mirabeau resisted the law proposed; Thouret defended it; and after a memorable struggle of six days between these two rivals, the assembly adopted by acclamation the plan of the committee.

Thouret was entrusted in an especial manner with

the organization of a new judicial code. The nine speeches he delivered on this important matter present the purity of his views, disclosed with much accuracy of reasoning and expression. It is to him that France is indebted for the establishment of justices of peace, and of a jury in all criminal cases; important and benevolent institutions, which will for ever render his memory revered. He had to contend for the adoption of a jury with the celebrated Tronchêt, whose opinion was averse to this new institution, which has since undergone different modifications.

The history of the labours of Thouret is connected with that of the constituent assembly. There were few important discussions in which he did not bear a part; we shall content ourselves with noticing his motion relative to the resources of the crown and the clergy, his report on the regency, and the discourse in which he combated the proposition of declaring the deputies not re-eligible. Thouret reasonably conceived that the new political order could only subsist as long as the founders would be the guardians of it: and the wisdom of this opinion, which was then questioned, has been but too fully demonstrated by posterior events.

The revision of the constitution terminated this memorable session. Thouret was ordered to unite and to consolidate different parts of a work, to the perfection of which his labours had so much contributed. We behold him, during three months, filling with indefatigable zeal the arduous functions of reporter to the committee of revision. The assembly rendered to his talents and to his useful exertions the most flattering homage in decreeing to him, for the fourth time, the title of pre-

sident. It was in this capacity that he closed the session, after having received from the king the oath of fidelity to the constitution.

From the rank of legislator he descended to the functions of judge; and, appointed President of the tribunal of appeals, he was in this supreme court a constant example of the union of intelligence and of virtue.

Two years had scarcely elapsed after the dissolution of the constituent assembly, when France became a prey to all the horrors of anarchy. The throne was overthrown, the laws abolished; virtue, science, and talents were considered as titles to proscription. The enemies of good order pursued with implacable fury several members of the constituent assembly, whom they accused of betraying the people, in the support of monarchy. Thouret, on this account, was obnoxious to them. He was arrested, and led as a *suspected* person to the prison of the Luxembourg. It was there, that, under the hand of oppression, he digested, for the instruction of his son, an abstract of the works of the Abbé Dubos, and the Abbé de Mably, upon the history of France, which has been since committed to the press. He had scarcely finished this labour when he was put upon his trial, under the absurd pretext of a conspiracy, tending to break open the cells of the Luxembourg, and to destroy the members of the convention. Although impressed with the inutility of his defence, he replied to the questions which were put to him by this infamous tribunal, with an intrepidity which silenced all reply. His death was resolved upon the third of May, 1794. With him perished the virtuous Malesherbes, Chapelier, and d'Eprémesnil.

The gratitude of the public has since avenged his memory, and rendered to his virtues consummate justice. Frequently has the national tribune resounded with regret at his loss. Many a time have his opinions been cited as a respectable authority in matters of the highest importance. His name has been given by the city of Rouen to the street in which he resided. In short, when the senate established at the Luxembourg erected statues in its palace to the celebrated characters who perished in the revolution, after having honoured them for their military talents or their social virtues, Thouret has been placed among the number of those illustrious victims, and the enclosure which was his prison is become the theatre of his glory.



particular manner by his passion for Madame de Longueville, espoused the cause of the parliament. He strove to reduce the Wemarian troops which he commanded; but failing in this attempt, he joined the Spaniards, and was beaten with them at Rhetel. Reconciled to the court, at a moment when the great Condé had declared himself against it, Turenne at the head of the royal army, preserved the throne and the state by his prudence and adroitness. He frustrated all the measures of his formidable adversary, and compelled him, after repeated sanguinary engagements, to retire into the Low Countries. The fate of one or the other of these extraordinary men was to be ever conquerors when they fought together at the head of the French, and to be beaten when they commanded the Spaniards. Turenne won the battle of Dunes, and would not suffer Mazarin to assume to himself the honour of it; he also took Dunkirk and the principal cities in Flanders, and forced Spain to conclude in 1659, the treaty of the Pyrenées.

The war of 1667 brought him again upon the stage. He commanded under the king, during that campaign, which, presenting nothing but easy victories, was, as Voltaire termed it, only a journey of state. In 1672 he took part with Condé and Luxemburg in the conquest of Holland. On this great expedition, the expence of which was excessive, and its brilliancy of such short duration, he added nothing to his glory. With 13,000 men, and the combined fleets of France and England, it is matter of infinite surprise that Holland was not completely overcome. The characters of men are frequently measured by the difficulties they surmount. Under this impression the two last campaigns of Turenne, those of

1674 and 1675, will ever command the admiration of military men. The war with Holland had armed nearly the whole of Europe against Louis XIV. Turenne defended Alsace. He crossed the Rhine with 10,000 men, fell upon the enemy at Sculzheim, and immediately dispersed them. Soon after 60,000 Germans in their turn penetrated into Alsace. Turenne could only bring against them 20,000 men. He pretended to abandon the province, suffered them quietly to establish themselves, and attacked them by surprise in their quarters, in the middle of winter, and delivered Alsace in fifteen days. He was at length opposed by the famous Monticuli. "*This campaign,*" says Folard, "*was to be the chef d'œuvre of the one or the other, antiquity presents nothing more brilliant.*" The eyes of Europe were fixed on the small theatre in which these two great men displayed all the resources of their art. Turenne flattered himself with conquests, when he was killed by a cannon ball at Salsbach, on the 27th of July 1675. This event caused considerable consternation throughout France: on hearing of the event Louis XIV. exclaimed, "*tout est perdu, M. de Turenne est mort.*"

This extraordinary man would have been the first general of his time had he not had Condé for a contemporary. To the talents of his illustrious rival Condé rendered the utmost justice: "*si je pouvais me changer,*" said he, "*je voudrais être M. de Turenne.*" What particularly distinguished him, was the ability, like Maurice and Gustavus, of accomplishing great actions by little means. In his opinion a large army was an inconvenience to the general who commanded the soldiers of which it was composed. He was not always fortunate,

but he had the adroitness quickly to repair his mischances. "*J'ai été battu par ma faute,*" said he with a dignified frankness, "*mais quand on n'a pas fait de fautes à la guerre on ne l'a pas faite long temps.*" No one displayed greater wisdom and promptness in extensive military combinations; no one could more ably conceive a plan and adhere to it; avail himself of seasons and positions, conceal his designs, penetrate those of the enemy, frustrate their projects, or profit by their errors. Turenne had to combat with the jealousy and despotism of Louvois, by whom he was often thwarted, and never evinced greater talent than in opposing him. He received from that minister the disgraceful order of burning the palatinate, which he executed, and by his obedience, attached to his memory a reproach, which neither the brilliancy of his life nor his military career can palliate. The mental qualities of this hero were not surpassed by his talents in the field. His probity, disinterestedness, his modesty, the noble simplicity of his manners, his mildness, kindness and generosity towards his troops, are attested by innumerable traits which have been collected by his various biographers, and which we regret that our limits will not suffer us to repeat. Louis XIV. caused his body to be deposited at St. Denis, the sepulture of the kings of France.





VAN DE WOLLE

## VANDERVELDE.

ANDRIAN VANDERVELDE was born at Amsterdam, in 1639. From his infancy he shewed a strong genius for painting, which induced his father to place him, as a disciple, with John Wynants, with whom he continued for several years. He perfectly understood the best and finest principles of the art. It was his constant custom to study every object from nature: the scenes and situations of his landscapes, the trees, clouds, and every species of animals, were curiously observed by him, and sketched in the fields, to which he every day resorted; nor did he discontinue that practice as long as he lived.

Having applied himself in a particular manner to the designing of figures, he not only had the advantage of embellishing his own landscapes, but also the landscapes of many other artists, whose works were in the highest estimation. He inserted the figures in the landscapes of Ruysdael, Hobbima, Moucheron, Vander Heyden, and even in the pictures of his master, Wynants, who, till he experienced the ability of his disciple, had generally engaged Wouvermans for that purpose.

In the choice of his subjects, and the agreeableness of his scenes, he had scarce a superior; and as nature was always his model, his compositions are remarkable for their truth. His touch is free and steady; his trees are natural and well formed, and the leafing sharply and accurately marked. His skies have a peculiar brilliancy;

and as he was exactly watchful to observe the effects of light in every particular object, he has most happily expressed its effects through the branches of his trees, on the surface of his waters, on his cattle, and in short, on every part of his scenery.

The general subjects of Vandervelde were landscapes with sheep, goats, horses, or horned cattle. He was nevertheless expert at composing subjects of history; nor were his works in that style in any degree less estimable. He painted several historical pictures, taken from the sufferings of Christ, with much success and reputation.

Through all the paintings of this master there appear a tenderness and uncommon warmth: his figures are well designed, and his cattle remarkably correct, with abundance of life and spirit in their actions and attitudes. He died in 1672, at the age of thirty-three.

Few of his works are now to be met with, as he did not live long enough to leave any considerable number, and those that are to be purchased are extremely dear.





JOHN HENRY

JOHN HENRY

JOHN HENRY

JOHN HENRY

## PAUL VERONESE.

It was an observation of Guido, that of all the painters Paul Veronese was the artist whose talent he should have preferred. "We perceive art," he added, "in the works of other masters; in those of Veronese, nothing is discoverable but nature." This just eulogium has so much the more weight, as proceeding from the lips of an artist of such celebrity, who had explored all the secrets of painting. Notwithstanding the criticisms to which the manner of Veronese has given birth, he will long be regarded as a genius of an extraordinary kind, whose productions are no less surprising from the vigour of his pencil than the majesty of his conceptions.

Paul Cagliariari is indebted to the city of Verona, in which he was born in 1582, for the surname to which he has given lustre. He left the shop of his father, who was a sculptor, in order to enter into that of his uncle Badillo, an esteemed painter of Verona. Paul was gifted with too much talent not to make the most rapid progress. His first attempts procured him the protection of cardinal Gonzaga, who conducted him to Mantua, and gave him frequent opportunities of distinguishing himself. Paul afterwards repaired to Venice, where he soon entered into competition with Tintoretto, François, Bassan, and Baptista Franco, for the works which the senate were desirous should be executed. In the opinion of Titian, Sansovino, and in that even of his rivals, he was de-

servedly preferred, and was invested with a gold chain, awarded by the senate. It is worthy of remark upon this occasion, in which he obtained still more flattering marks of distinction, that he never became an object of envy; for this singular advantage he was no doubt indebted to his personal qualities. Retained at Venice by the testimonies of esteem he received, Paul Veronese only left that city to return at times to his native country, where he left uncommon proofs of his capacity, and to travel to Rome in the suite of the lawyer Grimani. On his return to Venice he displayed the advantages he had acquired by the study of the works of Michael Angelo, and of Raphael; and in testimony of the new beauties which were discernable in his productions, he was created by the senate a knight of the order of St. Mark. His reputation was now at its height; but his extreme disinterestedness, and his taste for magnificence were for a time obstacles to his fortune. In his labours the desire of glory was pre-eminent; and it is well known that the immense picture of the "Marriage of Cana," his chef d'œuvre, and perhaps that of painting, as it has been frequently observed, produced him little more than the value of the canvass and the colours. This liberal line of conduct he pursued in respect to other choice pieces almost as considerable, executed for the convents, in which he found an asylum when the embarrassed state of his affairs compelled him to quit for Venice.

Having passed several days in the house of the Pisani, he secretly painted a picture of the family of Darius, in which there were more than twenty capital figures. This picture on his departure he left with his hosts, in gratitude for the hospitality he had received.

Notwithstanding the generosity of his character, the splendour of his house, the richness of his <sup>surroundings</sup> Paul Veronese was enabled in the end to relieve himself of all his debts, and realised an independent fortune. The number of his works is prodigious; and such was the celebrity of his fame, that Philip II. made him the most advantageous offers to attract him into Spain; but he preferred continuing at Venice. A good husband, an affectionate parent, and a faithful friend; he rendered himself generally beloved: a sincere piety was the basis of all his amiable qualities, and in no shape lessened the charms of society. Paul imagined without virtue that it was impossible to be a painter of the first order, and frequently said, "Painting is a gift of Heaven. The ornament of all the qualifications necessary to a great painter is probity, integrity, and manners."

Paul Veronese did not live to an advanced age: having overheated himself in following a procession, he was attacked by a disorder which led him to the grave in his fifty-sixth year. The fathers of St. Sebastian at Venice, caused a monument to be raised to his memory in that church, which he had decorated with several of his chef d'œuvres. He left two sons, who devoted themselves to painting.

Sir Joshua Reynolds, in his observations on the Venetian school of painting has so ably criticised the style of Veronese, and discussed his beauties and defects, as to leave us little to subjoin. On the anachronisms so conspicuous in his pictures, which he seems to have taken pleasure in multiplying, we forbear to dwell. As a colourist, he was a painter of the first rank. His pictures, which have preserved all their freshness, appear to

defy nature; so much is their effect true, lively, and harmonious. The attitudes of his figures are often noble, and always happy; the hairs of the head graceful and expressive, the draperies broad and well dispersed. His manner of painting is perhaps the finest that can be conceived: every thing appears to live in his productions. It is related, that some peasants seeing him one day seated before a picture which he had just finished, thought he was surrounded with company. In short, nature was the object of his constant study; and if he be wanting at times in simplicity, he is never deficient in truth or elevation.





## VITELLIUS.

VITELLIUS, the son of a father who was rendered illustrious by three consulships, was one of the favorites of Nero. He passed his youth in the island of Capreaë, and was educated, in a manner, in the midst of every species of crime. After having successively been pontiff, ædile, and proconsul of Asia, he obtained from Galba the command of the legions of Lower Germany. He was at Cologne when he was informed of the elevation of Otho. He aspired to the throne; and having had the address to procure the good will of the officers, was proclaimed by the soldiery emperor, on the second of January in the 69th year of J. C.

His first business was to march against his rival, who destroyed himself after the battle of Brixellum. It was upon this field of battle, covered with dead bodies, the stench of which was insupportable, that Vitellius used this memorable expression: "The body of a dead foe, and of a citizen in particular, always smells well." He entered Rome followed by 60,000 troops, and caused himself immediately to be declared perpetual consul. The first acts of his government were monstrous in the extreme. We behold him in a public assembly sacrificing victims to the *manes* of Nero, whose conduct he was desirous to imitate. Equally vile and corrupt as his prototype, he condemned successively to death, some of the most distinguished persons of the empire; and, like Nero, rendered himself guilty of a parricide, by im-

prisoning his mother, because it was predicted that he would live a long time if he survived her.

Incapable of governing, and abandoning his affairs to unworthy ministers, Vitellius gave himself up, without reserve, to his passion for the table and high living. His shameful excesses, in that particular, are well known. The most extravagant profusion prevailed in his entertainments. Flavius Josephus remarks, that if this prince had lived longer, the riches of the empire would not have been sufficient to supply the expences of his banquets; but the election of Vespasian delivered Rome from him. No less cowardly than cruel, Vitellius upon intelligence of the revolt of the army of the east, desired to abdicate the empire; the people sympathized with him and prevented it. But a little time after the burning of the capital, Primus, one of Vespasian's lieutenants, arrested him in Rome, and caused him to be condemned to suffer death. Vitellius, his hands tied behind him, a cord round his neck, and a poignard under his chin, to prevent him from reclining his head, marched to the place of execution, where this unworthy emperor, after experiencing every species of insult, from the fury of an enraged populace, was pierced by their swords, and expired in the greatest agony at the age of 54, after a reign of nearly twelve months. His head was carried as a spectacle about the streets, and his body thrown into the Tiber.





*Richard 1785*

*Richard 1785*

## WALPOLE.

ROBERT WALPOLE was born at Houghton, in Norfolk, in 1674. While he was only Secretary at War and Treasurer of the Navy, the Commons impeached him for bribery and corruption. He was, however, supported by the Whigs, and re-elected a member. On the accession of George I. his credit was raised to the highest pitch. He was at once First Lord of the Treasury and Chancellor of the Exchequer. In 1742 the war broke out, which he had always strenuously endeavoured to prevent, and was the cause of his disgrace. The nation was absolutely enraged against him. To screen him from the resentment of the Commons, the king made him a peer of England, with the title of Earl of Orford. To this was added a considerable pension, and in three days after he resigned all his places. But vengeance still pursued him under the forms of the law. He was desired to account for the millions expended on secret services; in which, among other things, he had expended above 50,000*l.* in gratuities to pamphleteers and periodical writers, who willingly returned the favour by their flattery and their constant defence of his measures.

But the king considered this enquiry into the secret expenditure as a personal insult to himself. In order to elude it, he prorogued the parliament, and this minister escaped with impunity. His last years were

spent in honourable retirement; and in the enjoyment of his friends, his family, and his fortune. He died in 1745.

There are few ministers whose characters and measures have been more rigourously discussed in conversation and in the public prints. He has been sometimes compared with his contemporary the Cardinal de Fleury. In the various negotiations which passed between them, Walpole always maintained a superiority, though he had sometimes the appearance of giving way. In one thing they agreed, their detestation of war; but though Walpole dreaded it full as much as the Cardinal, he contrived to draw very considerable sums from the French minister, under the pretext of preventing England from declaring war against France. It is probable, however, that these reports of receiving money from a foreign country, in order to corrupt his own by a shameless bribery of the parliament have been much exaggerated. He was surrounded by enemies who were eager for his disgrace, and for the close of his long administration. Many of his best measures were opposed without the smallest appearance of argument or reason. If he was averse to war, upon the principle that a war would be ruinous to his own interest, he at least made such good use of the peace he maintained, that the prosperity of the country appeared to justify his choice. It was upon commerce, and not upon battles, that he founded the wealth of the nation; and commerce never flourished so much as under his administration.





## WARBURTON.

WILLIAM WARBURTON, a learned prelate, was born at Newark upon Trent, on the 24th of December, 1698. He was the son of an attorney, and followed, for some time, his father's profession. This he relinquished in disgust and after going through a course of study, he took orders, without having had any university education. By his marriage, with a niece of Mr. Allen, he gained a considerable fortune; and, in 1755, was preferred to a prebend in the cathedral of Durham. Three years afterwards he was consecrated bishop of Gloucester. He was also preacher of Lincoln's Inn, and in 1757, advanced to the deanery of Bristol.

Endowed with a robust constitution, which no excess affected, he zealously devoted himself to the study of antiquities and of theology. His application, seconded by an excellent memory, soon rendered him one of the most learned men of his time. Having collected an abundant store of facts and ideas, he resolved to set them to work, and produced several performances, the most important of which was his "*Divine Legation of Moses.*" In this work he defended revelation upon the grounds of religious deism, by admitting, that though a future state made no part of the Jewish legislator's system, yet that the truth of the Mosaic scheme is capable of a moral demonstration.

This production, however, gave great offence to many learned and pious believers, who attacked it with great force, and was severely criticised by some writers on the Continent.

The talents of Warburton enabled him to form many valuable friendships among literary men. He lived in habits of great intimacy with Pope, whose writings he published and defended. Though at times involved in erudite researches and theological controversies, his mind was still alive to works of imagination and taste. He published an edition of Shakespeare, which was roughly handled by Edwards, in his *Canons of Criticism*. He also published a tract, in order to prove that hieroglyphics were not a mysterious mode of writing, of which the knowledge was exclusively confined to the priesthood and to the initiated, but a figurative style, or, in other words, the primitive writing which was used by men formed into societies in the earliest ages, when the language that was spoken was in itself only an imitation of the sound of objects. Besides these works Dr. Warburton printed a discourse, entitled *Julian, or a discourse concerning the earthquakes and fiery eruptions which defeated that emperor's attempt to rebuild the temple of Jerusalem*; a tract on the *Lord's Supper*; and several miscellaneous pieces. The bishop died at an advanced age, the 7th of June, 1779, and was buried in Gloucester cathedral. The whole of his works have been handsomely published by his friend, Bishop Hurd, in 6 vols. quarto.





GEORGE WASHINGTON, 1799

## WASHINGTON.

THERE are some men who are marked out by fortune to create empires, and to give them all the brilliancy that they can lay claim to. An invisible hand pushes them forward on the theatre of their glory,—circumstances arise for their genius,—even the enterprises of their enemies concur to raise them. The crowds who had seen them amongst themselves, see them, without envy, attain the summit of power, and seem to yield to their power. But some of these extraordinary men, after having procured the happiness of their country, feel themselves too great to bring it into subjection; they even seem to dread the effects of public gratitude. They are seen covered with glory again descending suddenly to the rank from which they sprung; and, greater than conquerors or monarchs, they then deserve the title of illustrious heroes: such was the celebrated Washington.

This legislator-warrior, the third son of Augustine Washington, was born at Bridges Creek, in the county of Westmoreland, in Virginia, the 22d of February 1732. His grandfather, John Washington, born in the north of England, crossed the sea in 1667, and settled himself in the same district in which the deliverer of America was born. The lofty and glory-loving soul of George Washington led him to adopt the military profession. At the age of nineteen he had acquired a reputation among his countrymen, who appointed him adjutant-general of

Virginia. The plan of France to unite its vast possessions in North America, viz. Louisiana with Canada, began then to develope itself. The French having taken possession of some lands belonging to Virginia, Washington was sent to negociate for withdrawing their troops. Before he arrived at the first French fort, he had to traverse several countries inhabited by a great number of savage nations, whose fidelity was at least doubtful. The prudence and courage which he displayed in this enterprize contributed to encrease his reputation. An unfortunate event was near snatching Washington from his military career. The death of his brother left him in possession of an immense property. He loved the sweets of a country life, and was on the point of yielding to his inclination, when General Braddock invited him to serve as his aid-de-camp. Washington hesitated ; the honour of defending his country was used as an argument to persuade him, and agriculture was forsaken for arms. Washington was present at the battle of Monongahela, in which Braddock fell. His valour could not prevent the defeat of his party ; the French gained a complete victory. The prudence of Washington alone saved the remains of the American army. The ascendancy of the French appeared decided. Washington, by his firm countenance, and energetic speeches, was able to retain under arms the discouraged soldiers who panted after repose. He continued to serve as colonel, as long as the French army threatened Virginia : but when it abandoned Fort Du Quesne, and the safety of the province was secured, Washington requested and obtained leave to retire. Shortly after, he married the widow of Mr. Curtis, a lady distin-

guished for her personal charms, and for those qualities which ensure happiness in domestic life.

After his marriage, Col. Washington, retiring to his estate at Mount Vernon, applied himself for some years to agriculture; perhaps the repose which he then enjoyed allowed him to undertake that which he had not been able to do during his campaigns, an examination of the rights and interests of the people, and a research into the causes of their prosperity and happiness. He exercised his thoughts on these important subjects, and collected those immense materials which he knew how to make such good use of, when it became necessary to give to America one of those extraordinary constitutions which are without a model. In his retreat Washington did not relax from his functions in the legislation of Virginia. He declared himself one of the first against the principles of arbitrary taxation adopted by the parliament. The independent companies which were formed in Virginia appointed him their chief. He was elected a member of the first congress which met at Philadelphia; and when it was necessary to send a commander in chief to the armies of the American Union, the congress, by electing him to that rank, was but the interpreter of the public opinion.

The epoch of the nomination of Washington, to this high rank, is perhaps that period of his life in which he displayed the greatest talents. To begin a war without money, provisions, or magazines; to cause committees, who did not feel all the advantage of an uniform system of defence, to adopt wise and well-conceived plans; to concentrate in his own hand sufficient authority to save his country, without alarming the independent spirit of the congress; this Washington undertook, and victory

was almost always faithful to his standard. After England had acknowledged the independence of America, Washington was chosen to govern the state of which he had been the creator. His wisdom in council was no less conspicuous than his valour in the field. He successively laboured to frame good laws for America, to prepare that constitution which forms the happiness and prosperity of the people who have adopted it. Washington afterwards wished to see, with his own eyes, the abuses which might exist in the provinces, and to cement the union between the head of the government and the different legislatures. In these journeys he occupied himself with all the branches of administration; he encouraged useful establishments, particularly those leading to the increase of population; and paid particular attention to agriculture, as the greatest cause of prosperity to a country. His modesty and simplicity did not forsake him in the high rank in which he found himself placed. He refused the title of Highness, but could not withdraw himself from the honours decreed to him by public admiration. In his journey to the north of the United States they raised triumphal arches to him, adorned with inscriptions in his praise. If he went to the theatre, every one stood up; if he was present at a ball, he was placed on a sofa; and they received as a sovereign, the man to whom they were indebted for the inestimable blessing of liberty. Washington was a friend to only such revolutions as deliver kingdoms from oppression, and not to such as yield them up to anarchy. Far from approving the system of the French innovators, he condemned them. Re-elected president of congress, in 1793, he refused to acknowledge the Vice-Consul of the Republic, and

delivered his own country from the exaggerated principles which began to be disseminated in it. He opposed with energy the writers of pamphlets; dispersed meetings; and preserved the tranquillity of the people entrusted to his care.

Tired of public affairs, he requested, in 1797, that he might not be re-chosen as a candidate for the presidency, which he was going to resign. Thus, without titles, without pomp, and without pride, he returned to his paternal fields, after having signalized his departure from Philadelphia by an act of benevolence, in the foundation of an university in the new town. The love and admiration of his countrymen followed him to his retreat, where he died of a quinsey, in the 67th year of his age, on Saturday, 14th of December 1799.

Great in reverses, still greater in victory: to the former he opposed courage, to the latter moderation. In Washington, wisdom sometimes supplied the place of bold ideas, and those brilliant views which are often more fatal than beneficial to a state. . He was worthy of the legacy bequeathed to him by Franklin in his will. "I give (said that great man) to General Washington, my friend and the friend of humanity, the crab tree stick which I use in walking: if this staff were a sceptre, he is equally worthy of it." A model of prudence, bravery, activity, and wisdom, Washington possessed all those qualities which confer real glory. At his death he left his country tranquil and flourishing: his labours have found their reward. To few men it is given thus to see their vast conceptions realized and consolidated, without being under the necessity of resorting to tyranny and force.







WOUVERMAN'S

## PHILIP WOUVERMANS.

No landscape painter of the Dutch school introduced more grace than Wouvermans in the style of his compositions. Noble, elegant in the choice and in the drawing of his small figures, he is always flowing, delicate and correct in his tints and his colouring. He painted horses, particularly those of the *manège* or the chace, with such perfection, that he may even be cited as a model, and with a degree of excellence which we in vain look for in those painters who attempted to imitate him.

If Wouvermans' pictures be not entirely exempt from defects, those defects are by no means habitual, and in no respect operate on the freedom and beauty of his manner. Sometimes he affected a sombre tone. By a contrary effect several of his latter works are impregnated with a blue or grey tint. His skies appear sometimes heavy, his trees indifferently drawn; but it must be admitted that in these pictures, the landscape is only an accessory; this he seems to have sacrificed to the charming scenes he introduced, and which he treats with a superiority which cannot be disputed. He has likewise introduced in his battle pieces a vigour and vivacity peculiar to himself.

It might reasonably have been supposed, that, being born in a country where artists gifted with superlative talents have even been courted and encouraged, Wouvermans would have acquired a consideration and a

## PHILIP WOUVERMANS. [HOLLAND.]

fortune proportionate to his merits. But naturally timid, and incapable of thrusting himself forward in the world, he lived in a degree of obscurity, and was always at the mercy of picture dealers, who enriched themselves by the fruits of his labours. Surrounded by a numerous family, ill paid for his productions, (of which he produced a great number, notwithstanding the extreme care he bestowed in finishing them) he supported himself with difficulty, wholly estranged from the comforts of life. Disgusted with himself, he dissuaded his son from following so unprofitable a career, and induced him to become a *Chartreux*. It is even said that a little time before his death, in his forty-eighth year, he burnt the studies and drawings he had made during the course of his existence.

Wouvermans was born at Haarlem, in the year 1610. He received his first lessons in his art from his father, who was an historical painter of no great repute. He afterwards entered the school of Winantz, but the heat of his genius naturally led him to the study of nature, in which he so much excelled. It does not appear that he ever quitted his native city. He formed several disciples, among others Peter and John, his two brothers, who adopted the same style of painting as Philip, but were greatly his inferiors. Wouvermans died in 1658.





PLATE 107. 10. 1000

ÆNEAS CARRYING HIS FATHER, ANCHISES,  
ON HIS SHOULDERS, TO PRESERVE HIM  
FROM THE CONFLAGRATION OF TROY.

BLONDEL.

THIS subject, taken from the second book of the *Æneid*, was proposed, in the year 1805, by the committee of the fine arts of the National Institute, at Paris, for the first prize in painting.

It was carried by M. Mery Joseph Blondel, the pupil of Regnault, at the age of 22. In this picture the action and expression of every figure, as well as the vigour and chasteness of the colouring, met with the most general commendation.







## JESUS AND THE CHILDREN.

S. BOURDON.

THE subject of this picture will be found in the following verses taken from the Gospel of St. Mark, chap. 10.

“And they brought young children to him, that he might touch them; and his disciples rebuked those that brought them.

“But when Jesus saw it, he was much displeased, and said unto them, suffer little children to come unto me, and forbid them not, for of such is the kingdom of God.

“Verily, I say unto you, whosoever shall not receive the kingdom of heaven as a little child he shall not enter therein.

“And he took them up in his arms, put his hands upon them, and blessed them.”

This composition before us displays, in a particular manner, the powers of M. Bourdon; and evinces considerable proficiency in the art, as an historical painter.







1871

1871

1871

## CHRIST IN THE DESERT.

CHARLES LE BRUN.

THE artist has chosen the moment in which our Saviour, tempted by the Devil, has just put him to flight. The angels then approach him, and present him nourishment. They are grouped with grace and dignity. Christ is in an attitude full of simplicity and expression. The figures are of the natural size.

This work is not only esteemed for the richness of the composition, but it has the peculiar merit, in common with all the works of Le Brun, of being carefully executed in all its parts. When this illustrious painter undertook this subject for the Carmelites of the *Rue St. Jacques*, he was then in the prime of life, and his talents were in their full vigour. On his return from Italy he laid the foundation of his fame. The pictures he painted at that epoch, and this in particular, are exempt from that weakness and uniformity so conspicuous in his other performances. It must however be admitted, upon being appointed principal painter to Louis XIV. that the labours imposed upon him by that magnificent prince, should excuse, in some measure, his defects.

Le Brun was an exact observer of costume. The attention he bestowed on this branch of his art induced him, when he engaged on the Battles of Alexander, to procure designs of the Persian horses from Aleppo. It is only necessary to study these battle-pieces with attention, to perceive, that these horses have, in fact, a differ-

## CHRIST IN THE DESERT.

ent character from those of the Macedonians. They are less in size and more elegant in form.

The desire manifested by Le Brun to observe implicitly the costume, led him into an extraordinary error. Being anxious to procure the figure of Alexander, they sent him, it is said, an antique medal of Minerva, on the reverse of which appeared the name of the Conqueror. Le Brun copied these features in his picture of the family of Darius, and consequently gave to his hero the physiognomy of a woman. On discovering his mistake, he was enabled by fresh researches to repair it; and it is presumed, that his *Entry into Babylon* presents the true portrait of the Macedonian king.





## A WOUNDED ROMAN SOLDIER.

DROUAIS.

THIS composition is from the pencil of an artist who promises by his talents to reflect lustre on the career he has chosen : the subject is at once simple and interesting.

Having received a wound which is likely to deprive him of life, this soldier appears to look indignantly upon his rival, and to triumph over his own affliction. He has taken from him his cloak and sword. In the background is a shield of a circular form.

This figure is one of those studies which the young French artists, who are sent to Rome at the expence of the government, are accustomed annually to produce, in order to attest their progress in the art. Drouais, by this display of his powers, has shewn himself worthy of the reputation which he had previously acquired.

In the figure of the "*Wounded Soldier*" a bold and correct outline, a chaste and vigorous colouring, and a flowing pencil, are particularly to be admired. This was the first study sent by M. Drouais to Paris from Rome.

The figure is of the natural size.







## THE ANNUNCIATION.

H. GENTILESCHI.

THE angel has one knee on the ground: with her hand she points to heaven in order to attest her mission. In her hand she holds a lily, symbol of the purity of Mary. The Virgin, standing with downcast eyes, listens with much reverence to the envoy of the Lord. Behind her is a bed, the ornaments of which exhibit the Grecian style of architecture, and perhaps are too fine to accord with historical truth. One window is open, and we behold the Holy Ghost placed in the centre of a luminous glory, the rays of which reflect upon Mary.

This picture, from the hand of a painter but little known, is worthy of particular attention. If the design be not perfectly correct, it is not wanting in elegance. The expression of the Virgin is true and well imagined. The chiar-oscuro gives the work a very fine effect. The colours display a strength and harmony suitable to the style of history. The mantle of the Virgin is blue, and her robe red. The upper drapery of the Angel varies in appearance according to the point of light; the tunic is yellow. The execution of the picture is laboured and bold. It was removed from the gallery at Turin.

Horace Gentileschi, the author of this work, is not so well known as his merits demand. He was born at

## THE ANNUNCIATION.

Pisa, in 1563. He worked some time at Rome with his friend, Augustine Tassi, from whence he repaired to England. He died in London, it is said, in the year 1646.





and wife

the Prince of Wales

## THE FAMILY CONCERT.

JACQUES JORDAENS.

A FAMILY, from the lower class of society, after having indulged themselves in the pleasures of the table, form a concert, which may be considered somewhat inharmonious, if we may judge from the age of the party. An union of an old man and his wife, of their children and grandchildren, the youngest of whom are blowing the flageolet, can only produce discordant music. The figures of this picture are of the natural size.

Incidents of this kind suited infinitely better the genius of Jordaëns than historical subjects, of which this painter presented nothing but compositions of heavy design and ignoble character. These defects, far from being misplaced in a trivial scene, render the expression the more natural. It must, however, be admitted, that Jordaëns, in all his pictures, has manifested a vigour of effect, a truth of colouring, and an energy of pencil, which will ever place him on a distinguished rank.

Rubens conceived for Jordaëns, who was his disciple, a peculiar esteem. He endeavoured to bring him forward, and committed to his genius several of his productions; among others the Cartoons in distemper, destined for the king of Spain, to be worked in tapestry, of which Rubens had given the outline.

Although the works of Jordaëns were not so highly appreciated as those of Rubens, his fortune was far from

## THE FAMILY CONCERT.

inconsiderable. Naturally industrious, and painting with wonderful facility, he produced such a multitude of pictures, that his income nearly equalled that of his master. His success in this respect was not a little promoted by the pleasantry and amiability of his disposition, which prolonged his life to an advanced period. He died at the age of 84, in the year 1678.





Scene of the "The Little Prince" by the artist

## THE PARDON.

LONDON.

THIS composition represents a domestic scene, which the artist embraces an opportunity of painting after nature. Two children in their amusements had just stifled a bird: they appear sensible of their inhumanity, and have made a confession of it to their mother. The parent, after a reprimand, forgives the crime.

This picture was exhibited in 1798, and has been engraved in mezzotinto by R. U. Massard.







*Alceste - Sophocles*

*Engraved by J. G. Kneller*

## THE FLAGELLATION.

MURILLO.

JESUS, tied to a pillar, has just undergone the punishment of flagellation.

St. Peter, kneeling before our Saviour, appears to participate in his sufferings, or to solicit pardon for having denied him when he was betrayed to Pontius Pilate. This little picture of Murillo, a Spanish painter of considerable eminence, is correct and brilliant in point of colouring. The figures, the drawing of which is by no means excellent, detach themselves from a back-ground, painted with infinite vigour.

The Spanish school of painting is that of which the least has been written. It is, nevertheless, very numerous, and embraces many artists of very extraordinary merit. In general they appear to have taken their models from each other, to have attended more to colouring than to precision, and beauty of form and dignity of character. "Philip II." says Mengs, "appears to have given greater encouragement to the arts than any of his predecessors. He built the magnificent palace of the Escorial, and very liberally recompensed the artists employed upon it. But as this prince had not the power to alter the manners of his subjects, nor the constitution of the state, the love of the arts remained concentrated in his person, without his being able to communicate it even to the nobility, who were continually occupied with the warfare and the riches of the New World."







## PORTRAIT OF LEO THE TENTH.

RAPHAEL.

LITTLE doubt can be entertained of the accurate resemblance of the portrait. All those which were executed by Raphael present a character of truth and simplicity, which nature only could inspire; it is but reasonable to suppose, that he took particular care in transmitting to posterity the features of the restorer of letters, the parent of the arts, and the sovereign whose munificence he so frequently experienced.

The picture of Leo X. is painted on wood, and is of an extensive proportion. Simplicity, truth of colouring, a touch easy and flowing; such are the principal beauties of this portrait, which is in no way inferior to the chef-d'œuvres of Titian, in a style of painting in which he particularly excelled.







## THE MIRACULOUS DRAUGHT OF FISHES.

RUBENS.

THE subject of this picture is taken from the Evangelist St. Luke, chap. v. verses 1 to 10.

“And it came to pass, that as the people pressed upon him to hear the Word of God, he stood by the lake of Gennesareth;

“And saw two ships standing by the lake; but the fishermen were gone out to them, and were washing their nets.

“And he entered one of the ships, which was Simon’s, and prayed him that he would thrust out a little from the land: and he sat down, and taught the people out of the ship.

“Now when he had left speaking, he said unto Simon, Launch out into the deep, and let down your nets for draught.

“And Simon answering, said unto him, Master, we have toiled all the night, and have taken nothing; nevertheless, at thy word I will let down the net.

“And when they had this done, they enclosed a great multitude of fishes, and their net brake.

“And they beckoned unto their partners, which were in the other ship, that they should come and help them. And they came, and filled both the ships, so that they began to sink.

“When Simon Peter saw it, he fell down at Jesus’

## MIRACULOUS DRAUGHT OF FISHES.

knees, saying, Depart from me, for I am a sinful man, O Lord ;

“ For he was astonished, and all that were with him, at the draught of fishes they had taken.

“ And so was also James and John, the sons of Zebedee, which were partners with Simon. And Jesus said unto Simon, Fear not : from henceforth thou shalt catch men.

“ And when they had brought their ship to land, they forsook all and followed him.”

Although we may easily conceive that the picture of Rubens represents this incident of the Evangelist, it exhibits some confusion in the principal figures. It is also incorrect in point of drawing, and defective in perspective, which induces us to believe, that this is one of those works executed, in a great measure, by the disciples of Rubens, from his sketches, which he afterwards retouched. In other respects, the three figures in the foreground, as well as the accessaries, such as the fish, the sea, and the shells, are depicted with a sentiment and a strength of pencil that claim our admiration.

This picture is about eight feet six inches high, and seven feet wide.





The first of the

## THE FOUR PHILOSOPHERS.

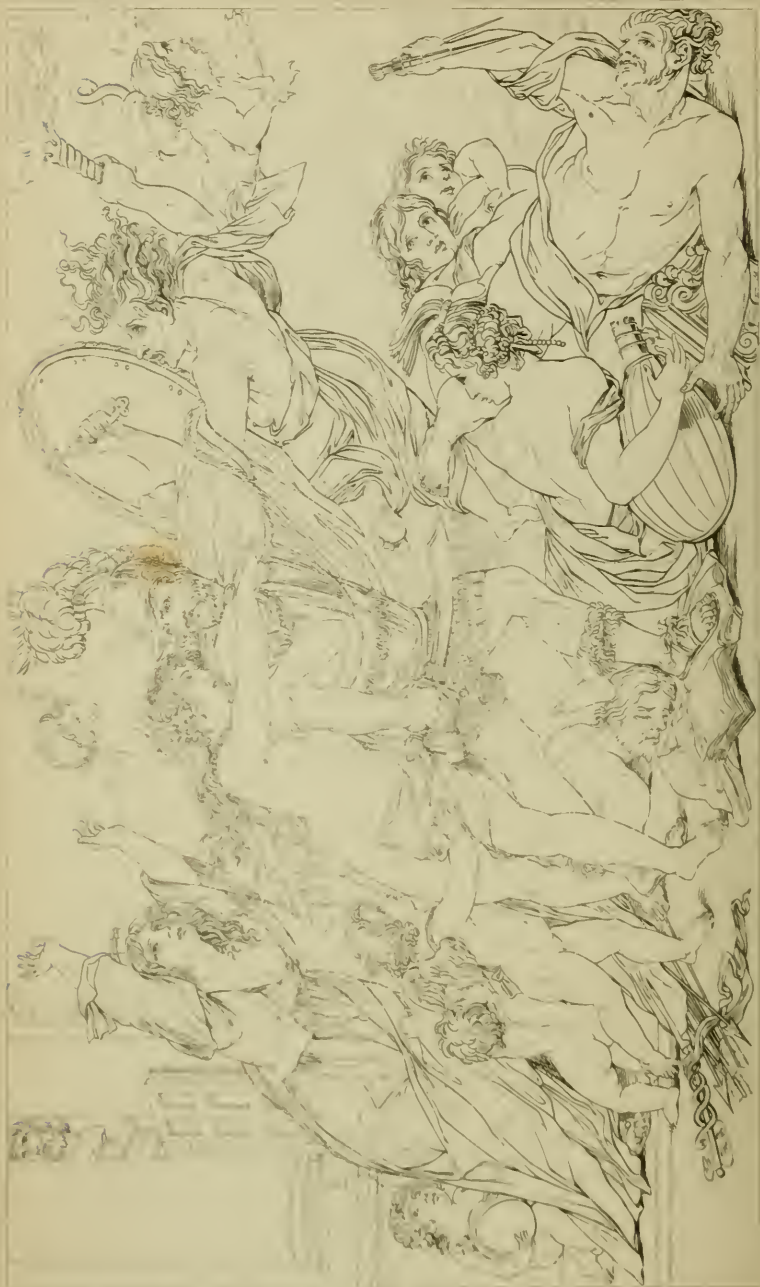
RUBENS.

THIS picture, representing Grotius, Lipsius, Rubens, and Philip Rubens, his brother, is a monument of the friendship by which Rubens was united to his brother, and to two celebrated characters who may be styled his countrymen; Lipsius being a native of Flanders, and Grotius a Dutchman.

This picture, which Rubens executed with peculiar care, was taken from the Florentine Gallery. Rubens is on foot behind his brother, who holds a pen in his hand: on the left of Philip Rubens is Lipsius. Grotius, in profile, is seen in the foreground.







## MARS SETTING OUT FOR WAR.

RUBENS.

THIS allegorical conception is truly poetical, and one of those which characterize, in a particular manner, the prolific genius of Rubens. We cannot better convey to our readers the idea of this great painter, than by detailing the explanation of the subject which he himself has given in one of his letters.

“The principal personage is Mars, who is seen leaving the temple of Janus. The god of war, armed with his sword and shield, threatens the people with the most fatal disasters; he resists the entreaties of Venus, who, accompanied by the Loves, endeavours to retain him by the tenderest caresses. The fury Alecto, holding her torch, conducts Mars to battle. She is preceded by two monsters, indicative of plague and famine, the inseparable companions of war. A female is extended upon the earth; beside her is a broken lute; this is *Harmony*, incompatible with the disorders which war produces. Not far from this figure is a woman holding her infant in her arms, signifying that war stifles the warmest sentiments, and restrains the expressions of maternal tenderness. The genius of architecture, bearing her attributes, is overthrown. This announces that the monuments erected in peace, for the ornament of cities and the utility of mankind, are ruined and destroyed by the devastation of war. Mars, the enemy of letters and of the arts, tramples under foot a book and

## MARS SETTING OUT FOR WAR.

some drawings. Some arrows are thrown on the ground near to the caduceus, the symbol of peace; united, they presented an emblem of concord, but the cord by which they were joined together is broken. The female following Venus, absorbed in grief, is Europe, exposed unfortunately, during a long series of years, to outrage, rapine and misery. She is characterized by the globe, surmounted by a cross, designating the christian world, which is borne by a little angel."

To this ample description, which Rubens has himself given of this admirable picture, it is almost unnecessary for us to add, that the execution is worthy of the idea, and that this performance exhibits all those excellencies of the art which are conspicuous in his best productions.





*St. John the Evangelist*  
By the same hand as the preceding

## THE DESTINY OF THE QUEEN MARY DE MEDICIS.

RUBENS.

THE Fates weave the destiny of the Queen ; they are ingeniously disposed in order to unite the composition with the sky of the picture, where Jupiter and Juno are seen presiding over their labours. The head of the goddess is full of expression : her robe is of a clear violet ; and her veil, transparent and light, floats in the heavens. Jupiter, to whom the artist has had the address of giving those traits by which he is characterized in the works of the ancients, has a red drapery. The Fates are somewhat heavy in point of drawing ; but the colouring is brilliant and correct. The light is introduced from above ; and the shades acquire vigour in proportion as they retire from the luminous foyer, which gives considerable effect and harmony to the whole.

The circumstances which gave rise to the series of paintings that embellish the Gallery of the Luxembourg, of which the subject under review forms a distinguished ornament, are briefly these. Mary de Medicis, the daughter of Francis II. Grand Duke of Tuscany, married, in 1573, Henry IV. king of France, and in 1610 was appointed Regent of the kingdom upon the death of that illustrious prince. Various objects of dissension arose between the Queen and her son, Louis XIII. which Richelieu, then bishop, and afterwards cardinal, had the policy to accommodate.

## DESTINY OF MARY DE MEDICIS.

The following year Mary, upon her return to Paris, being desirous of immortalizing the principal events of a disturbed life, sent for Rubens, then in the meridian of his glory, to receive her commands. Rubens immediately repaired to Paris, where he made choice of the subjects, and drew the designs. The pictures he afterwards finished in the space of three years.

The gallery commences with the birth of this princess, in 1573, and terminates with the reconciliation with her son, in 1619.





The Death of Socrates

## THE EDUCATION OF MARY DE MEDICIS.

RUBENS.

THE scene is laid at the grotto of the fountain Castalia. Minerva instructs the young princess in the elements of the sciences. Apollo, crowned with laurel, inspires her with a love of the fine arts; the attributes of which are visibly grouped with the ægis of the goddess. The Graces preside at the education of Mary: one of them presents her with a crown of flowers; and Mercury descends from heaven to endow her with the gift of eloquence.

If the figures of the men, and particularly that of Minerva, exhibit those heavy shapes for which Rubens has been frequently reproached, the females are depicted with greater delicacy. The attitude of the Graces is elegant; that of Mary is simple, and the expression is *naïve* and correct. The tints of the back-ground, rich, soft, and harmonious, bring forward most advantageously the carnations of the Graces. Rubens had painted two of these figures without a veil: they have since been in part covered by a different hand. In this outline we conceived it a duty to follow the original, as painted by Rubens.

The mantle of Minerva is yellow, and her helmet blue. The young princess has a purple robe, ornamented with diamonds. The vest of Apollo is of a brilliant red, which accords extremely well with the vigorous

## EDUCATION OF MARY DE MEDICIS.

tone of the carnations. Rubens has employed an ingenious means of casting upon the Graces the principal light. The accessories on the foreground are touched with vigour, and contribute to the general effect of the whole.





*Copy of the original of the picture of the Virgin Mary*

## HENRY IV. DELIBERATING UPON HIS MARRIAGE.

RUBENS.

HYMEN and Love present to the king the portrait of Mary de Medicis. Love induces him to observe the charms of the Princess. France appears inviting Henry to contract an alliance, which Jupiter and Juno, seated on a throne, seem to approve. Two little Cupids, placed on the foreground of the scene, amuse themselves with the helmet and the shield of the heroic prince.

The beauty of the pencil gives peculiar grace to this poetical and pleasing composition. The figure of Henry IV. is such as to prove that Rubens could be correct when he was disposed to be so. No artist could have more ably drawn it, and given to his physiognomy greater expression. His armour is ornamented with gold, and presents bold and vigorous tones, over which is a scarf of white satin. The scarf of Hymen is also white; the drapery of Jupiter is red; that of Juno a bright yellow. The portrait of the queen is touched with much delicacy. The painter has given her a violet vest, decorated with diamonds. The tints of this portrait are softened, and represent in effect a plain surface; so that by giving to the other personages relief and life, Rubens has been able to produce the most perfect illusion. The carnations of the two Cupids have all the freshness and delicacy suitable to their age. The drawing

## HENRY IV. DELIBERATING.

of the figures of Jupiter and Juno is heavy and incorrect. Rubens has, however, given to these divinities the character by which they are distinguished. The clouds which support a group, the car drawn by peacocks, and the eagle bearing thunder, are executed with a brilliant and vigorous pencil.





*Illustration of the "Lion-Dog"*

## THE MARRIAGE OF HENRY THE FOURTH AND MARY DE MEDICIS.

RUBENS.

RUBENS has expressed this subject by a noble and ingenious allegory. The two lovers, under the emblems of Jupiter and Juno, are borne upon clouds. Henry offers his hand to his wife, whom he contemplates with affection. Mary, in a modest and almost respectful attitude, receives the testimony of a passion, which leads her to the highest honours. Hymen, crowned with flowers, his torch in his hand, points to the constellation Venus, under whose influence this union is celebrated. Several Cupids wanton around Henry IV. and the rainbow, symbol of the approaching serenity, glitters in one part of the heavens. Underneath is the *City of Lyons*, seated on a car, drawn by two lions; she views, with admiration, the august personages. The back-ground presents a portion of the city where the event took place.

In the execution of this picture Rubens has adopted certain principles, which he had in some sort created, to produce a grand effect. The diamonds and the veil which decorate the head of the queen, her red robe bespangled with gold and her sky-blue mantle, form, with the tones of the flesh and the scarlet drapery of the king, a prodigious mass of light, to which every thing is subordinate. The tunic of Hymen, which serves as a ground to the figures of Henry and Mary,

## MARRIAGE OF HENRY THE FOURTH.

is green, and brings forward the freshness of the carnations. In placing the *City of Lyons* in demi-tint, Rubens has given to the gilding of her car, and to her attire (the colours of which are purple and violet,) an air of solidity without making this part of the picture vie in splendour with the principal group. The lions, the eagles, and in general all the accessories, are depicted with a firm and vigorous pencil. The design is judicious and correct.





## THE ASSUMPTION OF THE VIRGIN.

TITIAN.

THE Virgin rises to heaven, supported by clouds, and encircled by cherubim. She views, with a look of benevolence, the apostles grouped around the tomb, who express by their attitudes admiration and respect.

This composition is one of the finest productions of Titian. The figure of the Virgin is noble, correct in point of drawing, and the head is extremely graceful. Those of the apostles have much expression and great propriety of character. The execution is dignified and easy, the colouring soft and harmonious. The carnations, in general, appear rather dark, but this defect is the work of time; and it is not to be doubted but that the picture had originally a freshness which it now appears to be deprived of.

On this head the following remark of Sir Joshua Reynolds, in one of his excellent lectures on painting, is particularly applicable: "we ought rather to contemplate what the pictures of the great colourists have been, than what they are, if we would render to the painters the justice which is due to them; and convince ourselves that they have not usurped their reputation."

This picture, the figures of which are of the natural size, was placed in one of the chapels of the cathedral church at Verona.







## CHRIST TAKEN FROM THE CROSS.

VANDYCK.

IF this picture had been less laboured it might reasonably, with respect to its extent, be considered a mere sketch: but although the figures are of the proportion only of a foot, it may perhaps be put in competition with the best works of Vandyck.

In this performance the genius of that eminent painter is discoverable. The delicacy and truth of his colouring, the forcible manner in which the affections of the soul are expressed, and the gracefulness of his pencil, display his wonderful powers. In that branch of the art which sets off every other, Vandyck stands unrivalled, and assumes the first rank in the opinion of connoisseurs.

The colours of the draperies are selected in such a manner as to contribute to the fine effect of the whole. The body of Christ, enveloped in part with a white drapery, displays itself upon the blue mantle and the veil of the Virgin. The veil is black, as well as the drapery of the first angel; but the artist has had the ingenuity to vary the tints, and to give to the drapery a tone infinitely more vigorous.

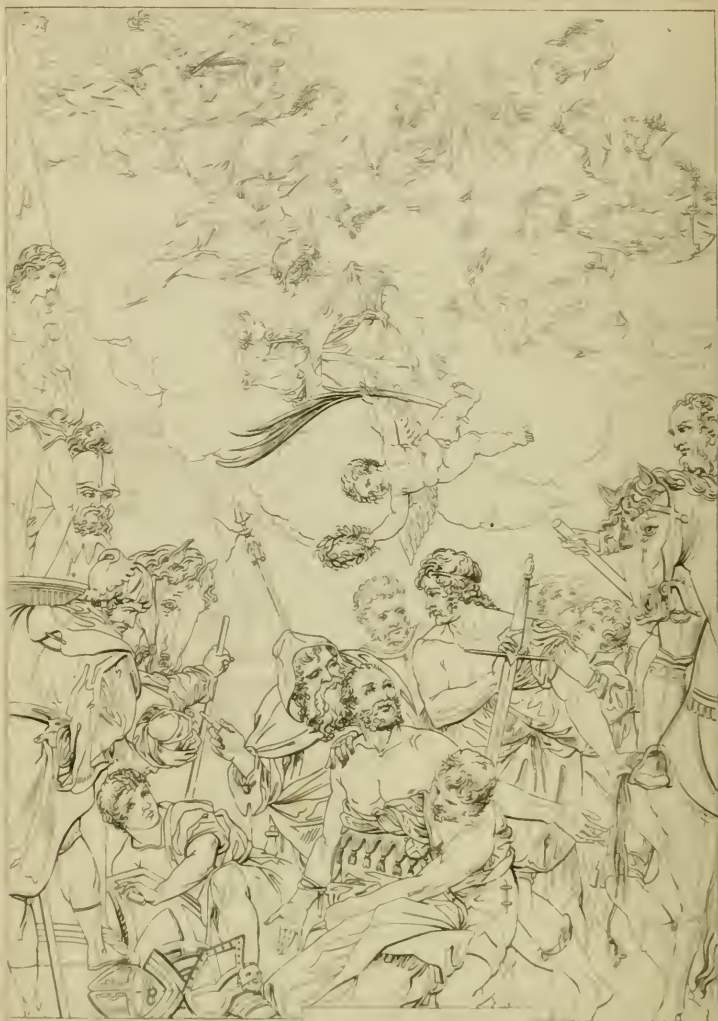
The angel, whose hands are clasped, is clothed in a red stuff, which unfolds itself gracefully upon a back-ground of clouds. The accessories are no less ably pourtrayed: they are depicted with a warmth

## CHRIST TAKEN FROM THE CROSS.

which corresponds with the general tone of the figures.

This picture, or, rather sketch, formed part of the cabinet of Louis XIV. at Versailles.





## THE MARTYRDOM OF ST. GEORGE.

PAUL VERONESE.

THERE are few particulars to be collected relative to St. George; the circumstance of his martyrdom has furnished the subject of this composition.

St. George, upon his knees, is insensible to the exhortations of the high priest of Apollo, who solicits him to renounce christianity, and to worship his false divinities. An executioner, sword in hand, appears to wait with impatience the moment in which he is to fulfil his ministry. A colleague places the saint, who makes no resistance, in a position for receiving his punishment. Several warriors, companions in arms of St. George, amongst whom two knights are distinguished, behold with astonishment the resignation of the martyr, to whom an angel presents a crown and a branch of palm. In the heavens the Virgin and the infant Jesus are visible, witnessing the courage of St. George; near them are St. Peter and St. Paul. Faith, Hope, and Charity, distinguished by their attributes, recommend the holy warrior to divine assistance. Groups of angels and of cherubim form a concert, vocal and instrumental.

This picture, the figures of which are of the first proportion, ornamented the principal altar of the church dedicated to St. George, at Verona. The figure of the saint is dignified and correct; and, in point of drawing, that of the chief executioner highly

## MARTYRDOM OF ST. GEORGE.

characterized ; and the superior groups are remarkable for the grace and variety of their attitudes. The execution is admirable ; it is neither laboured nor overcharged ; every thing seems to be accomplished at the first touch, with a richness of tones, a force of sentiment, which are only to be looked for in the works of Paul Veronese. This master is eminently distinguished for simplicity of colouring. It is, however, to be remarked, as a defect in this beautiful performance, that considerable confusion prevails in the bottom of this composition, and that some part of it appears not sufficiently studied.





## CUPID BENDING HIS BOW.

### ANTIQUE STATUE.

LOVE, naked and on foot, is employed in bending his bow. The effort he makes compels him to extend his thighs, and to incline forward the principal part of his body. There exist several antique copies of this figure, the original of which, in the opinion of some antiquaries, is supposed to be the Cupid in bronze; which, according to Pausanias, was executed by Lysippus for the Thespians. Certain other writers have imagined they recognized in each of these copies the Cupid of Praxiteles, celebrated by Callistrastes. This latter sentiment has been cautiously received, it being generally known that the Cupids of Praxiteles are never represented in the attitude of casting the arrow.

This statue, in white marble of Paris, is about three feet ten inches in height. Its origin is not indicated in the notice of the gallery of antiques. The head, which is particularized, is certainly that of a Cupid, but the motion of that head, which does not appear to accord with the bust, has occasioned a suspicion that it did not originally belong to the statue. The right arm, the right thigh, and the legs, are the work of restoration.







Scene from the Tragedy of Oedipus

Scene from the Tragedy of Oedipus

## THE DESCENT FROM THE CROSS.

DANIEL DI VOLTERRI.

THIS picture, painted in fresco, is still at Rome, in the church of the Trinity *del Monte*. The princess of the house of Ursini, who had a chapel there, commissioned Daniel di Volterri to ornament it with pictures. The manner in which he acquitted himself of this task placed him on a rank with the first masters. These pictures relate to the mystery of the cross, and present considerable beauties; but the painting under review is infinitely superior to the rest. It is pretended that Michael Angelo furnished Daniel di Volterri with the outline; but this anecdote is founded upon vague and uncertain reports, to which little credit should be attached.

This Descent from the Cross is esteemed one of the three finest altar pieces that were at Rome, when the city possessed the "Transfiguration" of Raphael, and the "Communion of St. Jerome" of Domenichino, which, seized by the hand of rapine, at present decorate the Napoleon Museum.

The drawing of this picture unites the dignity of the antique with the *fierté* of the Florentine school. It presents the most striking and pathetic expressions; that of the Virgin overcome with affliction approaches even to the sublime.

It is, in a particular manner, through the beauties it offers in point of design and expression, that this picture is deserving of its great celebrity. The colouring is by

## THE DESCENT FROM THE CROSS.

no means seducing; the carnations of the men are of a red brick colour; those of the women of an unnatural paleness. The draperies present tones in general harsh. Although time, which causes the colours in fresco to fade, may have taken from this picture a great portion of its vigour, we may reasonably presume it was never much esteemed for its colouring. In hazarding this remark it is far from our intention to depreciate one of the chef d'œuvres of the art: on the contrary, the idea tends to prove that the productions of genius, notwithstanding some important defects, have a decided advantage over those works which present only a combination of inferior beauties.





## ANTINOÛS.

### ANTIQUÉ STATUE.

WE have frequently had occasion to remark how much the statues of this young favorite of Adrian were multiplied, in conformity to the orders of that prince. To throw an appearance of truth in this series of portraits, and to reflect greater honour upon Antinoüs, he has been decorated with the attributes of several divinities. The statue before us is accompanied with those which designate, in a peculiar manner, the renowned Hercules. One foot with one arm directed towards Heaven, Antinoüs lets the other fall upon his club covered with a lion's skin.

Did we not advert to the extreme resemblance of the head with those which represent Antinoüs, we might imagine that the artist was desirous of depicting Iole, the companion of Hercules, who, in some ancient monument, bears, like that God, the lion's skin and the club.

This statue is colossal. The execution is firm and dignified, and characterizes the sculpture of the time of Adrian; an epoch in which art produced chef-d'œuvres, little inferior to those of the days of Pericles and Alexander.

The head is very fine; the hair braided with grace and of exquisite workmanship. This statue could only be raised from the earth in detached pieces, it having

## ANTINOUS.

been mutilated in more than twenty places; but it has been carefully restored. It is executed in marble, and was found in the environs of Tivoli, where the *Villa Adriana* formerly stood.





*My young sister, Mrs. J. W. C.*

*Written by her mother, Mrs. J. W. C.*

## BOY PLUCKING A THORN.

ANTIQUE STATUE, IN BRONZE.

THE attitude of this figure has given it the name by which it is vulgarly known. The elegance of the attitudes, the naïveté and simplicity of the action, place it on a rank with the best statues in bronze which have descended to us.

The head and the hair are wrought with peculiar care; the eyes have been formerly incrustated: the sculptors of antiquity frequently adopted this method for the head in bronze, and frequently for those in marble. They frequently placed in a cavity, made by the artist, precious stones, or leaves of silver.

We cannot pass over in silence the opinion of those who composed the notices of the antique statues contained in the Napoleon Museum. They imagine that this statue represents an athletic young man, the foremost in running; because, in the public games of Greece, children, even of tender age, contended with each other in such courses on foot, and in which the conquerors were frequently honoured with a statue. The nudity of this figure appears a sufficient motive to give probability to this assertion.

This performance in bronze originally belonged to the *Palais des Conservateurs* to the capitol. It is not known where, and at what time, it was discovered.



## LOUIS THE ELEVENTH.

STATUE.—MICHEL BOUDIN.

It is well known that Louis XI. was fearful of death. In order to obtain the cure of those disorders to which age is subject, he ordered François de Paule to visit him in the fortress of Plessis-les-Tours, and devoted himself to the prayers of that pious anchoret. He did not, however, forego the daily commission of some new crime, which doubtless rendered the idea of approaching dissolution still more terrible.

Louis XI. notwithstanding this impression, upon his return from a pilgrimage which he made to St. Cloude, and which, far from re-establishing his health as he expected, had the tendency to weaken his bodily strength, ordered a splendid mausoleum to be erected in the church of Notre-Dame de Clery, the form of which, and the necessary ornaments, says Vely, the king himself prescribed. This tomb was never finished; but during the reign of Francis I. in the year 1622, Michel Boudin, a sculptor, a native of Orleans, was commissioned to execute this statue in marble, which was the principal figure.

The head is finely wrought; it betrays boldness of chisel and correctness of expression; it bears, moreover, a resemblance to the portraits which have been preserved of that prince: he is clothed in the royal mantle. During the revolution this statue was mutilated, and the head broken in three pieces.

## LOUIS THE ELEVENTH.

But little certain is known of the artist, Boudin. It is, however, related at Clery, where the monument originally was, that, disgusted with his salary, he stole a silver lamp suspended in a church; and being apprehended was delivered over to justice, which showed him no favour. This, without doubt, is one of those popular stories which are sometimes circulated without the smallest belief in their authenticity.









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